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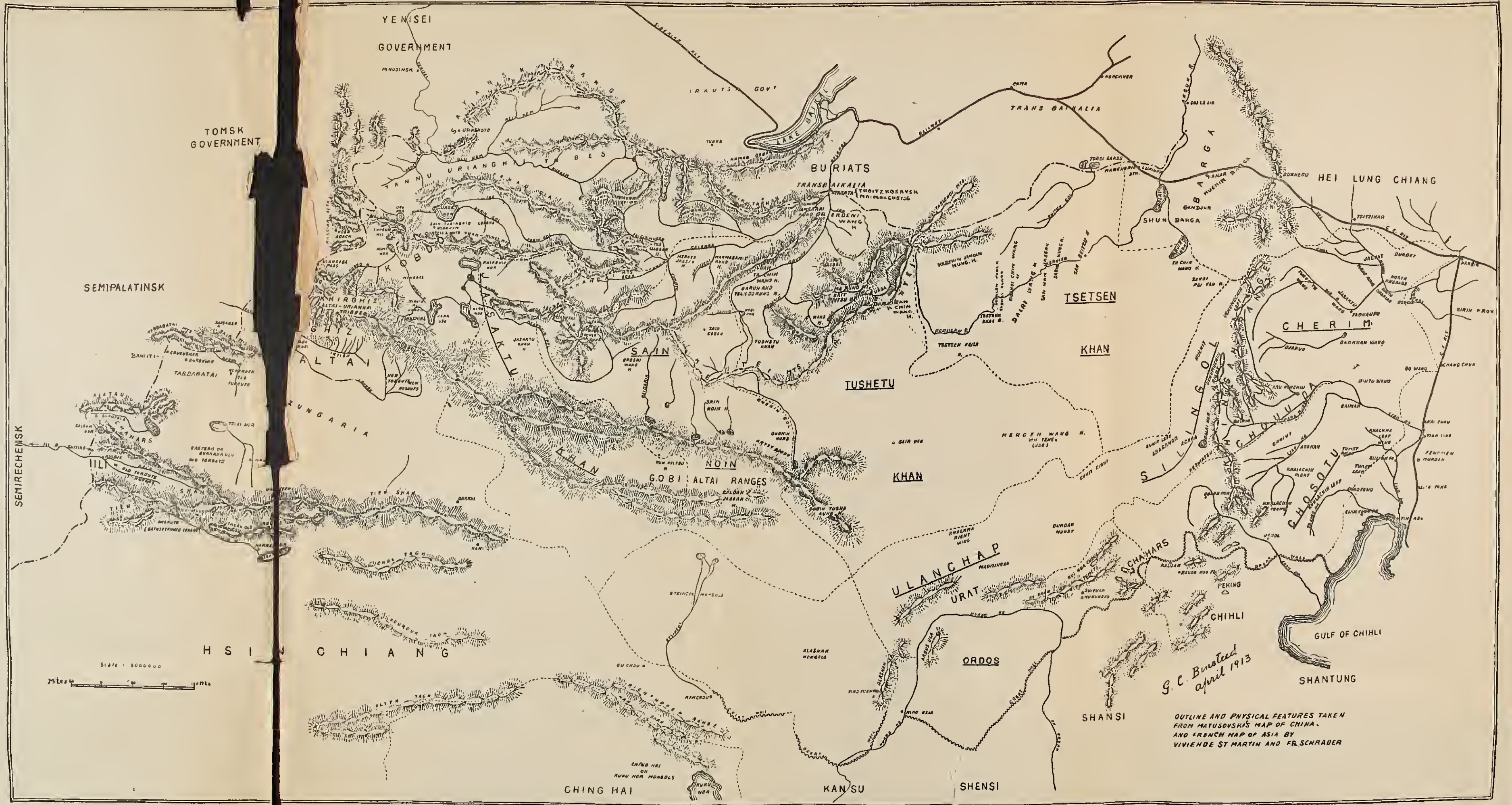
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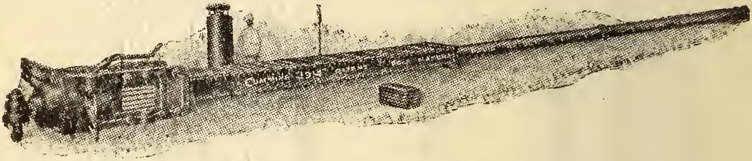

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CHAPTER I

CHINA

CHINESE territory extends from latitude 53° N. to 18° N. and from longitude 74° E. to 134° E. It comprises China Proper (21 Provinces[1]), Mongolia,[2] Eastern Turkestan or the New Territory (Sinkiang), and Tibet.[2]

The frontier of this vast country marches from the N.E. westwards to the S.W. with Siberia, Russian Turkestan, India, Burma, Tongking, and the country is bounded on the E. by the Pacific Ocean and Korea.

Area and Population

The total area of Chinese territory is estimated at 4,278,352 square miles, apportioned as follows :—

	sq. miles.	
China Proper . .	1,896,500	(Manchuria 363,700)
Mongolia . .	1,367,953	
Chinese Turkestan .	550,579	
Tibet . . .	463,320	

[Stanford[3] gives the area of the Empire as 4,376,000 square miles : China Proper 1,532,000, Manchuria 364,000, Mongolia 1,200,000, Tibet 700,000, Chinese Turkestan 580,000 square miles.]

The taking of a census by the methods adopted in Western nations has never yet been attempted in China, and consequently estimates of the total population have varied to an extraordinary degree. The nearest approach to a reliable estimate is, probably, the census taken by the Minchengpu (Ministry of Interior) in 1910, the results of which are embodied in a report submitted to the Department of State at Washington by Mr. Raymond P. Tenney, a Student Interpreter at the

---

[1] Until 1907 China Proper comprised 18 Provinces, while Manchuria was governed as a separate dependency. By the Imperial Decree of April 20, 1907, the three Manchurian provinces of Shengking, Kirin, and Heilungkiang were combined into a single viceroyalty, the Viceroyalty of the Three Eastern Provinces.

[2] For the status of Mongolia and Tibet see the chapter on Greater China.

[3] Stanford's *Compendium of Geography*, *Asia*, Vol. I. A. H. Keane, LL.D.

U.S. Legation, Peking, and published in the Daily Consular and Trade Reports of July 13, 1911. It is pointed out that even this census can only be regarded as approximate, as, with a few exceptions, households and not individuals were counted. The families of the whole Empire (exclusive of Tibet) were returned as :—

China Proper	56,312,256
Metropolitan District (Peking, etc.)	831,266
Manchuria	1,780,308
Sinkiang	453,477
Manchu Military Organization	309,151
Dependencies	138,460

A census of individuals taken in various parts of the Empire provided a clue to the number of persons per family. The average number was found to be 5·5, which multiple was used except in the case of Fengtien, in Manchuria, where the much higher multiple of 8·38 was adopted. Worked out on this basis the following figures were obtained :—

China Proper	304,003,000
Metropolitan District (Peking, etc.)	5,671,000
Manchuria	14,917,000
Sinkiang	2,491,000
Manchu Military Organization	1,700,000
Dependencies (exclusive of Tibet)	760,000
Total	329,542,000

If to this total we add 1,500,000 as the probable number of inhabitants in Tibet (as compared with the Chinese estimate of 6,500,000), the total for China becomes 331,000,000. In 1904, it may be added, Mr. W. W. Rockhill, American Minister to China and a shrewd and scholarly observer of things Chinese, estimated the population of China Proper (18 provinces at 270,000,000. The total given below, 342,639,000, comprises the Chinese estimate of the population of Tibet and an estimate of the complete figures for Szechuan province (see note, p. 3).

The subjoined tables show the estimated population at various dates (obtained from various sources and abstracted chiefly from "The Middle Kingdom") and the latest official estimates of the population :—

A.D. 1381	59,850,000	A.D. 1412	65,377,000
1580	60,692,000	1662	21,068,600
1668	25,386,209	1710	23,312,200 & 27,241,129
1711	28,241,129	1736	125,046,245
1743	157,343,975	1753	103,050,600
,,	149,332,730	1760	143,125,225
,,	150,265,475	,,	203,916,477
1761	205,293,053	1762	198,214,553
1790	155,249,897	1792	307,467,200
1812	362,467,183	,,	333,000,000
,,	360,440,000	1842	413,021,000
1868	404,946,514	1881	380,000,000
1882	381,309,000	1885	377,636,000

Province.		Area, sq. miles.	Minchengpu Census, 1910.*	Pop. per sq. mile.	Capital of Province.	Census, 1885.	Customs Estimate, 1910.
Anhui		54,826	17,300,000	315	Anking	20,600,000	36,000,000
Chekiang		36,680	17,000,000	463	Hangchow	11,700,000	11,800,000
Chihli		115,830	32,571,000	281	Paoting	17,900,000	29,400,000
Fukien		46,332	13,100,000	282	Foochow	23,500,000	20,000,000
Honan		67,954	25,600,000	376	Kaifeng	22,100,000	†
Hunan		83,398	23,600,000	282	Changsha	21,000,000	22,000,000
Hupeh		71,428	24,900,000	348	Wuchang	33,600,000	34,000,000
Kansu		125,483	5,000,000	40	Lanchow	5,400,000	†
Kiangsi		69,498	14,500,000	208	Nanchang	24,500,000	24,534,000
Kiangsu		38,610	17,300,000	448	Nanking	21,300,000	23,980,000
Kuangsi		77,220	6,500,000	84	Kueilin	5,100,000	8,000,000
Kuangtung		100,000	27,700,000	277	Canton	29,700,000	32,000,000
Kueichow		67,182	11,300,000	168	Kueiyang	7,700,000	†
Shansi		81,853	10,000,000	122	Taiyuen	10,800,000	†
Shantung		55,984	29,600,000	528	Tsinan	36,500,000	38,000,000
Shensi		75,290	8,800,000	116	Sian	3,300,000	†
Szechuan		218,533	23,000,000†*	105	Chengtu	71,000,000	78,711,000**
Yunnan		146,714	8,500,000	58	Yunnan	11,700,000	8,000,000
Shengking	Manchuria	363,700	14,917,000	41	Mukden	—	17,000,000
Kirin					Kirin		
Heilungkiang					Aigun		
Totals		1,896,495	331,188,000	174		377,636,000 (Without Manchuria)	438,425,000
Sinkiang			2,491,000				
Manchu Military Organization			1,700,000				
Dependencies			760,000				
Tibet (Chinese Estimate)			6,500,000				
Total			342,639,000				

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* Mr. Raymond Tenney's Report to the U.S. State Department.

† The combined population of these five provinces was estimated at 55,000,000.

** Estimated by Sir A. Hosie in 1904 at 45,000,000.

†* The actual figures given are 16,400,000, but this represents the returns of only five-sevenths of the province. The uncertainty of Chinese figures is well illustrated by the estimates of the population of Szechuan. It is clear that neither 23,000,000 nor the higher figure can be accepted with any degree of confidence.

COMPARISONS IN AREA AND POPULATION

	Sq. miles.	Population.
British Empire	11,454,862	397,261,509
Russian Empire	8,647,657	160,095,200
China	4,278,352	331,000,000
Canada	3,729,665	7,185,000
United States (with Alaska)	3,571,492	93,402,151
Australia	3,065,121	4,724,138
India	1,773,088	294,317,082
United Kingdom	121,391	45,216,741

DISTANCES (NAUTICAL MILES)

London												
2003	Marseilles											
3511	1508	Port Said										
4906	2903	1395	Aden									
6999	4996	3488	2093	Colombo								
8277	6274	4766	3371	1278	Penang							
8672	6669	5161	3766	1673	395	Singapore						
9320	7317	5809	4414	2321	1043	648	Saigon					
10112	8109	6601	5206	3113	1835	1440	934	Hongkong				
10965	8962	7454	6059	3966	2688	2293	1787	853	Shanghai			
11720	9717	8209	6814	4721	3443	3048	2542	1608	755	Kobe		
12066	10063	8555	7160	5067	3789	3304	2888	1954	1101	346	Yokohama	

DISTANCES (via SIBERIA)

London										
665	Berlin									
1867	1202	Moscow								
5248	4583	3381	Irkutsk							
6191	5520	4324	943	Manchouli (Chinese Frontier)						
6771	6106	4904	1523	580	Harbin					
7253	6588	5386	2005	1062	482	Vladivostok				
7094	6429	5227	1846	903	323	—	Mukden (via Harbin)			
7340	6675	5473	2092	1149	569	—	246	Dalny (Tairen)		
7529	6864	5662	2281	1338	758	—	435	—	Tientsin (via Mukden)	
7615	6950	5748	2367	1424	844	—	521	—	86	Peking

COAST DISTANCES.—A

Shanghai							
14	Woosung						
66	52	Gutzlaff					
420	406	354	Foochow				
620	606	554	200	Amoy			
755	741	689	335	135	Swatow (from Shanghai direct 673 miles)		
908	894	842	488	288	153	Hongkong (from Shanghai direct 826 miles)	
991	977	925	571	371	236	83	Canton (from Shanghai direct 909 miles)

COAST DISTANCES.—B

Shanghai					
390	Tsingtao (Kiaochou)				
492 (direct)	270	Weihaiwei			
532 (direct)	310	40	Chefoo (from Shanghai direct 511 miles)		
725	503	233	193	Taku	
776	554	284	241	51	Tientsin (from Shanghai direct 740 miles)

DISTANCES UP THE YANGTZE

Shanghai												
95	Kiangyin											
156	61	Chinkiang										
201	106	45	Nanking									
256	161	100	55	Wuhu								
318	223	162	117	62	Tatung							
364	269	208	163	108	46	Anking						
453	358	297	252	197	135	89	Kiukiang					
595	500	439	394	339	277	231	142	Hankow				
882	787	726	681	626	564	518	429	287	Shasi			
965	870	809	764	709	647	601	512	370	83	Ichang		
1427	1332	1271	1226	1171	1109	1063	974	832	545	462	Chungking	

Shanghai to Dairen (Dalny)	567 miles.
,, ,, Newchwang	701 ,,
,, ,, Vladivostok	995 ,,
,, ,, Nagasaki	412 ,,
,, ,, Kobe	755 ,,
,, ,, Yokohama	1101 ,,

Coastal Configuration

The coast-line of China, in the form of a semicircle, is 2150 miles in length, or, with all indentations reckoned, approximately 5000 miles. The northern part, including the coast of Chihli, the N. and N.W. of Shantung and Kiangsu, is of an alluvial nature ; the remainder is granitic. Along the latter (the provinces of Chekiang, Fukien and portions of Kuangtung) are innumerable islands, affording anchorages, of varying extent, in abundance, while the sea is of a more uniform depth. Shoals fringe the northern coast-line, and navigation relies upon the channels made by the rivers : e.g. the Liao (at Newchwang), the Pei-ho (at Taku for Tientsin), the Yangtze-kiang (at Woosung for Shanghai).

A chain of volcanic islands (the Kurile Islands, Japan, Loochoo Islands, Formosa, the Philippines) separate the western portion of the Pacific Ocean from the deeper waters of the central and eastern Pacific. The seas of China are all within this barrier. They are known as :—

(1) The Yellow Sea (*Huang-hai :* including the Gulf of Chihli and the Gulf of Liaotung).

(2) The Eastern China Sea (*Tung-hai:* including the Formosa Channel).

(3) The South China Sea (*Nan-hai*).

Of their characteristics L. Richard[1] says:—

> "(*a*) They are less saline; (*b*) they are much less deep, never reaching over 1000 fathoms; (*c*) the height of the tide varies from a maximum of 6½ feet in the Gulf of Chihli and at Hongkong (where usually it is 'hardly noticeable') to 16 feet and more between Amoy and Foochow; (*d*) the variation in the temperature of the water is much less than on the mainland."

The chief points on the China Coast from the Yalu River which divides Manchuria from Korea are in order of sequence:—

Antung: treaty port, facing the Korean town of Wiju.

Tatungkow: Customs station.

Dalny, called Tairen (Dairen) by the Japanese.

Port Arthur: the Liaotung Peninsula, including Tairen and Port Arthur, is Japanese territory.

Cape Liaotishan (Regent's Sword).

Newchwang: Foreign treaty port } on the Liao River: ice-bound
Yinkow: Chinese town } in winter.

Hulutao: A new port in process of construction by the Chinese Government. A railway is under construction connecting the port with Lienshan, 7½ miles away, on the Peking-Mukden Railway. The port would be the southern terminus of the Chinchou-Aigun Railway, if this were to be constructed.

Shanhaikuan: the Great Wall ends at this spot a few miles from the sea.

Chinwangtao: treaty port: ice-free: winter port for Tientsin and Peking.

Luan River.

Taku: village at the mouth of the Pei-ho. The forts that protected the approach were destroyed at the time of the Boxer rising in 1900. The Taku Bar is two miles long.

Yellow River (Huang-ho).

Tengchou: a former port that is gradually being silted up. Between here and Cape Liaotishan, 65 miles distant, lie the Miaotao Islands.

Chefoo: treaty port.

Weihaiwei: British leased territory.

The North-East Promontory.

Tsingtao: Kiaochou Bay: German leased territory.

Haichow (Yuchow) Promontory.

Earlier mouth of the Yellow River (before 1852).

The Yangtze River.

Tsungming Island.

Shanghai, on the Huangpu River: treaty port.

Hangchow Bay: the tide at the mouth of the Tsientang River forms a bore which varies in height from a few feet to 15 or 20 at the equinoxes, while the water has occasionally risen to as much as 30 feet.

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[1] L. Richard's *Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire and Dependencies.* Translated into English by M. Kennelly, S.J., Shanghai, 1908.

Hangchow: treaty port, capital of Chekiang Province.

Ningpo: treaty port at the confluence of two rivers, forming the Yung or Tatsieh, which reaches the sea at Chinhai, 12 miles distant.

Chusan Archipelago: with the Saddle Islands lying to the N.E., the chief fishing centre of China. Chusan Island, 21 miles long and 11 broad, with two main harbours, Tinghai and Chinkiamen.

Nimrod Sound: 20 miles south of Ningpo. A long narrow fjord measuring 37 nautical miles in length and on an average 3 miles broad, narrowing down to 1 mile in the centre. At the head of the Sound the expanse of water stretches 7 miles north to south, and here are located the famous oyster-breeding establishments. The Sound has been proposed as a future naval base for China.

Sanmen Bay: Bay of the Three Gateways: offering a variety of anchorages, but of uneven serviceability and exposed to high winds and typhoons.

Wenchow: treaty port.
Santuao: treaty port.
Foochow: treaty port
Pagoda anchorage.
Amoy: treaty port.
Kulangsu: foreign settlement.
Swatow: treaty port.
Mirs Bay: included in the leased territory of Hongkong.
Kowloon: Customs station.
Hongkong: British territory.

Heungchow: ten miles north of Macao, where a semi-official attempt is being made to create a new port and Chinese settlement on foreign lines.

Macao: Portuguese territory.
Lappa: Customs station.
Canton: treaty port.
Kuangchouwan: French leased territory.
Hainan: island.
Pakhoi: treaty port.

Orography

The greater part of China is mountain land, and only along the channels of the Yellow River and Yangtze in their lower reaches (extending in the case of the former for nearly three hundred miles) is there a low-lying alluvial plain, stretching to the coast and north and south for several hundred miles.

Anything in the nature of a detailed account of the orography of China is impossible within the limits of this Year Book, for it would entail lengthy reference to the researches of Dr. Sven Hedin, Dr. M. A. Stein, Dr. Merzbacher, M. Bonin, and a number of other travellers and explorers who within recent years have added considerably to our knowledge of Central Asia. For a comprehensive summary of the results of these researches the reader is referred to the latest edition of Stanford's *Compendium of Geography*, *Asia*, Vol. I, by A. H. Keane, LL.D., from which the following summary is in the main taken.

The mountain system of Greater China may be said to start from the Pamir Plateau, that elevated nucleus of Central Asia from which massive mountain-chains spread in every direction. With a general tendency of from west to east, China's great mountain systems group themselves from this point into three principal chains, divided at the outset by the Takla-Makan Desert (basin of the Tarim River) and the great tableland of Tibet.

I. To the north-east is the *Tienshan* Chain, throwing out in a series of parallel spurs, running eastward, the following ranges :—

Tienshan-nan-lu	Mustagh Ata or Tagharma Mountain, west of Yarkand,	25,000 ft.
Tienshan-pe-lu	Tengri Khan,	23,600 ft.
Altai Mountains		11,100 ft.
Tannu-ola Mountains		—

This chain sweeps broadly across the continent to the furthest confines of north-eastern Siberia.

II. The *Kuenlun* Chain (20,000 ft.), running south of the Takla-Makan and Gobi Deserts and designated successively—

Altyn Tagh	14,000 ft.
Nanshan (where it enters Kansu province)	14,000–16,000 ft.
Alashan	17,000–18,000 ft.
Inshan	10,000 ft.
Khinghan Mountains	7,000 ft.

the latter being continued across the Siberian province of Amur to the Sea of Okhotsk. A separate spur known as the Aneuto Mountains is thrown out due east, where the main range takes a slight north-easterly direction as the Altyn Tagh.

III. The third chain branches at first in a south-easterly direction from the Kuenlun Chain, forming Dr. Sven Hedin's Trans-Himalaya; then when it reaches the border country of China and Tibet it is broken into a series of ranges running north and south, resolving itself finally into two main ranges—

(*a*) One running north-east, the Yunling Mountains, which ultimately take a west and east direction as the Kiulung Mountains, with a parallel range to the north the Hsiking, Peling, Tsingling, Funiu, and Muling Mountains.

This range throws its spurs into Hupeh, through Honan to Anhui, to Shantung and through Shansi to Chihli.

(*b*) The second running south-east between the valleys of the Mekong and Upper Yangtze, and then spreading out in a general north-easterly direction across the whole of southern China in a series of ranges known in part as—

Shishan (16,000 ft.).
Nanling Mountains.
Yungling Mountains.
Nanshan } 9500 ft.
Tayuling } 9500 ft.

The two latter form a bold range, following a parallel direction with the coast from Kuangsi to Chekiang. [N.B.—The nomenclature of these mountains varies considerably.]

In the second main chain the Nanshan Mountains are a series of parallel lofty ridges, among which may be mentioned (from north to south):—

Alexander III Mountains.
Humboldt Mountains.
Ritter Mountains.

Between these ranges and the south-eastern corner of Tibet come the following mountains in order from north to south :—

Koko Mountains,
Burkhan Bota (and to the east of them)
Ame Machin Mountains,
Baian Kara,

while north of the Tengri Nor (lake) rises the great Tangla range at a mean elevation of probably 20,000 ft.

In China Proper we have the notable ranges, already referred to, running north and south on the Chino-Tibetan border, rising well above the snow-line. Among the individual peaks may be mentioned :—

Mount Nenda, or "Holy Mountain."
Mount Jara, N.W. of Tachienlu.
Mount Omei.
Siwelung Shan.
The "Seven Nails" (? 19,000–20,000 ft.).

In Manchuria the Shanyan-alin (10,000–11,000 ft.) forms the frontier line of Korea, and in the north are the Illykuri-alin and the Duss-alin.

Sacred Mountains

1. Tai Shan in Shantung.
2. Heng Shan in Shansi.
3. Sung Shan in Honan.
4. Hua Shan in Shensi.
5. Nan Yueh (Heng Shan) in Hunan.

Of these Mr. R. F. Johnston (*From Peking to Mandalay*, John Murray, London) says that Tai Shan is the most famous as far as literature and tradition go, Nan Yueh is the most popular and Hua Shan the most beautiful and the loftiest.

Other famous mountains are :—

1. *Mount Omei*, west of Kiatingfu, Szechuan (10,158 ft.). A pilgrim resort for Buddhists. L. Richard states that 56 pagodas have been

erected on the mountain, the highest at an elevation of 10,000 ft. Mr. R. F. Johnston enumerates 35 monasteries or temples passed on a journey up and down the mountain.

2. *The Three Peaks of Dokerla.*—A centre of Tibetan pilgrimages. N.W. Yunnan (19,700 ft.).

3. *Wu Tai Shan.*—North of Shansi. The monastery on this mountain is said to be the oldest in China. It is visited annually by thousands of pilgrims, Chinese, Mongolian and Tibetan. The Dalai Lama stayed here on his return from Peking to Lhasa (1909).

Hydrography

The drainage of China divides itself into two sections, the great inland system of the Central Asian plateau and the Pacific Ocean. The former comprises a number of closed basins, the chief of which is the Lob-nor. "This lake or flooded morass, the true position of which was first determined by Prjevalsky in 1877, receives through the Tarim river nearly the whole drainage of Chinese Turkestan. Here the surrounding Tianshan, Kizilart, Karakorum and Kuenlun send down numerous streams, including the Aksu, Ugendarya, Shahyar, Kashgar, Yarkand and Yarangkash (Khotan), all of which are collected by the Tarim and carried through a channel to the Lob basin. The Tarim also receives from the north the discharge of Lake Bagrach (Bostang-nor) through the Koncheh-darya (Kaidu-gol). But the Cherchen-darya, rising in the Tuguz-daban (Western Kuenlun), flows through the sands intermittingly from the south directly to the lake at the Tarim confluence." (Stanford's *Compendium of Geography*, *Asia*, Vol. I.)

The total length of the Tarim, with the Yarkand-darya and the Zarafshan as its main head-streams, may be set down as 1100 miles.

China Proper is one of the best watered countries in the world, for in addition to the three great rivers in the centre, the north and the south respectively, it possesses a multiplicity of smaller streams and lakes. The four rivers, the Yangtze, Huangho, Sikiang, and Pei-ho, together drain four-fifths of the country. The general course of the rivers, following the trend of the mountain ranges, is from west to east.

RIVERS

The chief rivers are:—

1. *Yangtze-kiang.*—3158 miles long, traversing the provinces of Yunnan, Szechuan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhui, and Kiangsu. The Yangtze rises in the centre of the high plateau of Tibet at an altitude of over 16,000 feet. Its early course as a torrential stream is mainly S.E., and it is known at first as the *Kinsha-kiang*. Meeting the high table-land of Yunnan, it is deflected N.N.E. and makes in all three great bends before settling down again on a N.E. course, which is maintained with many zigzags to Kueichoufu, at the eastern extremity of Szechuan. From Pingshanhsien, 1215 miles from the source, the river becomes in part navigable, though with dangerous rapids to within the vicinity of Ichang, 2193 miles from the source. From Ichang to Hankow the Yangtze is navigable by small river steamers, and from Hankow to the mouth (595

miles) by ocean-going vessels. The tides reach 200 miles up the estuary. From Ichang to Chungking the river rises 470 feet, and a native junk, sailing and tracking, may take from 20 to 40 days. The record for a steamer (*Shuhun*, 1914) is 43¾ hours. Steam navigation on the Upper Yangtze was inaugurated in 1898 by Mr. A. Little with the launch *Leechuan*. A more successful effort was made in the following year with the *Pioneer*, which was the first vessel that made her way from Ichang to Chungking under her own steam. The *Pioneer* was sold by Mr. Little to the British Government in 1900, and was converted into a river gunboat. A German steamer, *Suihsiang*, was the next to attempt the rapids, but she was lost a few hours after leaving Ichang. In 1910 a Chinese company, the Szechuan Steam Navigation Company, started a commercial venture with the steamer *Shutung*, which, except for one short period, has since maintained a regular service between April and December each year. From December until April navigation is impossible owing to three low-water rapids, Kong Ling, Chin Tán, and Hsin Lung Tan, 38, 44 and 177 miles respectively above Ichang. A second steamer was put on the river in 1914, and those now plying include the *Shutung*, *Shuhun*, *Tachuan*, *Lienhua*, *Chuchuan*, *Meitan* (Standard Oil Co.), and *Anlan* (Asiatic Petroleum Co.). In August, 1911, the *Shutung* ran on the rocks 20 miles above Fongti and was left high and dry for six weeks, being at one time 30 ft. above the level of the water and 100 yards from the water's edge. The level of the Yangtze in the upper reaches varies as much as 100 ft. with the seasons. The following table, compiled by the Maritime Customs, gives the highest water-mark of the Yangtze at Hankow above a zero low-level since 1865:—

1865	43 feet.		1883	45 feet	6 inches.	1901	46 feet	5 inches.
6	48 ,,	6 inches.	4	36 ,,	10 ,,	2	38 ,,	3 ,,
7	45 ,,	3 ,,	5	45 ,,	8 ,,	3	42 ,,	6 ,,
8	44 ,,	9 ,,	6	41 ,,	10 ,,	4	37 ,,	10 ,,
9	49 ,,	6 ,,	7	48 ,,	9 ,,	5	44 ,,	
1870	50 ,,	6 ,,	8	40 ,,	8 ,,	6	45 ,,	6 inches.
1	43 ,,	4 ,,	9	48 ,,	3 ,,	7	44 ,,	6 ,,
2	46 ,,	3 ,,	1890	46 ,,	10 ,,	8	44 ,,	3 ,,
3	43 ,,		1	43 ,,	11 ,,	9	46 ,,	3 ,,
4	38 ,,	2 inches.	2	44 ,,	9 ,,	1910	39 ,,	7 ,,
5	45 ,,		3	44 ,,	8 ,,	1	47 ,,	8 ,,
6	43 ,,	9 inches.	4	43 ,,		2	46 ,,	8 ,,
7	34 ,,	4 ,,	5	41 ,,	3 inches.	3	41 ,,	
8	48 ,,	6 ,,	6	46 ,,	8 ,,	4	39 ,,	5 inches.
9	41 ,,	5 ,,	7	46 ,,	8 ,,	5	41 ,,	7 ,,
1880	39 ,,	6 ,,	8	40 ,,	7 ,,	6	38 ,,	7 ,,
1	37 ,,	4 ,,	9	41 ,,	10 ,,	7	46 ,,	1 ,,
2	46 ,,	5 ,,	1900	31 ,,	3 ,,			

Tributaries.—Left Bank: Yalung-kiang, Min-kiang, Chung-kiang, Kialing-kiang, Han-ho (at Hankow, navigable for 600 miles).

Right Bank: Hung-kiang, Hsuyung-ho, Hoh-kiang (or Chih-shui), Wu-kiang, Yuen-kiang, Siang-kiang, Kan-kiang, Huangpu.

2. *Yellow River* (Huang-ho).—2700 miles long, navigable only in

parts. This river also rises in Tibet, in the Odontala Plain, Kokonor region, west of the lakes Jaring Nor and Oring Nor, at an altitude of 13,800 ft. It traverses the province of Kansu, enters Mongolia, forms the boundary line between Shansi and Shensi, and in turn for a short distance between Shansi and Honan, cuts across the southern tongue of Chihli and traversing Shantung finally enters to-day the Gulf of Chihli. Changes in the channel of the river have taken place in the years 1194, 1209, 1324 and 1853. In the latter year the dykes to the N.E. of Kaifengfu (capital of Honan) gave way, and the Yellow River (known as "China's Sorrow" owing to the devastation that its vagaries have caused), after hesitating between several courses, settled down along the bed of the Tachingho, about 90 miles to the eastward of the breach. The following information is taken from a report made for the Maritime Customs: The bed of the Tachingho was at that time more than sufficient to hold even the flood waters of the Yellow River, but silting up began at once, and the flood waters came closer and closer each year to the river bank. In 1883 they began to overflow, gently flooding the plain, and in consequence dykes were constructed on both sides of the river from Tungahsien to the sea. Prior to this dykes had been gradually continued down from Honan to Tungahsien. The new ones were built at a distance of 5 to 7 miles apart, to leave plenty of room for the flood current and to provide for the deposit of the silt which the river was unable to carry down to the sea. Two years later the farmers owning land on the flood plains below Tungahsien were allowed to build an inner line of dykes to protect their property, with the result that the outer dyke, which had been built on a more or less scientific principle, was rendered useless. In the meantime the flood-level has risen from 15 to 20 feet above the level of the plain, and it is believed that the Yellow River will be unable to maintain its present bed for another 15 years. In 1898 when a disastrous flood occurred, owing to a breach 15 miles below Lokou, silt and sand were deposited over an area of some 200 square miles to a depth varying from 2 to 10 feet, amounting, it is estimated, in the aggregate to over 16,000,000,000 cubic feet. The Yellow River is said to entail an annual expense and loss of some £750,000 on the Central Government and the provinces concerned.

Administration.—Each Governor or Viceroy is responsible for his section of the river. In Shantung the official immediately responsible to the Governor is the Judge, who has under him three River Taotais controlling, respectively, the upper, middle and lower sections of the river in the province. Under each Taotai are six military captains, the engineers of the work. "A captain has charge of a section on one side only of the river. His business is to preserve his dyke; and if his works endanger the opposite dyke, as they sometimes do, that is the business of the opposite captain." Under these captains are four or six lieutenants. At each threatened point of the river, i.e. where the low-river channel comes close to the dyke, is a river-guard station, where materials and stores required for repairs and construction of protection works are kept, under a military officer, with civil officers—*weiyuan*—under them in charge of the general upkeep of the dyke.

Tributaries.—Left Bank : Sining-ho, Pingfang, Fen-ho, Tsin-ho.
Right Bank : Djaghing-gol, Taoho, Loh-ho, Wei-ho.

3. *Amur River.*—2920 miles long. The Amur River is formed by two great arms, the Shilka and Argun, which unite on the Mongolian plateau. The former rises on the north side of the Khanula range and flows through Russian territory: the Argun rises to the south of the same range and remains in Chinese territory until near the 50th parallel, where it forms the boundary between Russian Siberia and the Chinese Empire. After uniting with the Shilka the stream continues as the Amur to divide these two countries until the junction with the Ussuri River near Khabarovka. The Amur with the Shilka is navigable for some 1500 miles.

Tributaries.—Left Bank : Zeya (at Blagoveschensk), Bureya.
Right Bank : Sungari, Ussuri.

4. *Mekong* } 5. *Salween* } *Rivers.*—Neither of these rivers belongs wholly to China but rising in the Tibetan plateau, they hold together on a parallel course due south for some 900 miles through Chinese territory. The Mekong, while in China, flows through a deep channel, at times 2000 feet below the surrounding country. It continues its course through Indo-China and entering Cambodia finally empties itself into the China Sea in the south of that state.

The Salween is a broader stream in its passage through China. It flows into the Gulf of Martapan.

6. *West River* (Si-kiang).—1250 miles long (if the Hungshui be taken as the parent stream), traversing the provinces of Yunnan, Kueichou, Kuangsi and Kuangtung. This river rises in the east of Yunnan ; it is navigable for steamers for over 200 miles and for smaller craft for another 100 miles. At Samshui it divides into several branches forming the Canton delta. The northern branch, Chu-kiang or Pearl River, flows past Fatshan and Canton, emptying itself into the sea through the *Bocca Tigris* between Hongkong and Macao. The southern branch, known as the Si-kiang, enters the sea west of Macao.

Tributaries.—Left Bank : Hua-kiang, Liu-kiang, Kuei-kiang, Peh-kiang, Tung-kiang.

Right Bank : Yuh-kiang, Yung-kiang. Some authorities regard the Hungshui as a tributary and restrict the Si-kiang to the waterway below a point south-west of Nanning (Kueichou) where the stream is joined by the Yuh-kiang.

7. *Red River* (Sungkoi or Hungho).—*Circa* 500 miles long : navigable for about half its length up to Manhao. It rises in N.W. Yunnan and flows in a S.E. direction into the Gulf of Tongking. Its chief tributaries join it in French territory : on the left bank the White River ; on the right bank the Black River.

8. *Wei-ho.*—The chief tributary of the Huang-ho. It rises in Kansu, west of the mining region of Kungchang, and passes in a deep channel through the loess plateau of Kansu and Shensi, joining the Huang-ho at a point near where these provinces and Honan meet. Approximate

length, 400 miles; navigable for shallow boats for about 140 miles to Hsinping. Chief tributary, King-ho on the left bank.

9. *Liao-ho.*—This river rises to the S.W. of Dolo-Nor, and running at first north and then east, forms the boundary between Chihli and Mongolia. Its present mouth Yinkow (Newchwang) is nearly thirty miles below its former mouth, where it is joined by the Hun-ho (which flows past Mukden). The Liao is navigable by small craft for over 200 miles.

10. *Huai-ho.—Circa* 450 miles long. This river rises in the south of Honan and pursues an easterly course across the province of Anhui into the Hungtseh Lake. It is navigable for three-quarters of its length from Sinyang.

11. *Min River.*—A tributary of the Yangtze, which it joins near Suchou. It rises in the extreme north of Szechuan and flows past Chengtu and Kiating. It is navigable for 200 miles.

12. The *Sungari.*—A tributary of the Amur, rises in the Chang-pei-shan (Pehtan-shan, White-crested Mountain) at an altitude of 8000 ft. on the borders of Korea. It is navigable up to Kirin.

Tributaries.—Left Bank: Nonni, navigable up to Tsitsihar.

Right Bank: Khurkha.

13. The *Ussuri River.*—A tributary of the Amur, rises near Vladivostok. It is 350 miles long and flows through Lake Hinka, from which point it is navigable.

14. The *Yalu* rises in the Pehtan-shan (White-crested or Long White Mountain) and flows in a generally south-westerly direction, forming the boundary between Manchuria and Korea. It is navigable for 600 miles.

Chief tributary.—Right Bank: Hun-kiang.

15. *Tsientang River.*—This river, the chief waterway in Chekiang, rises in the Tayuling Mountains with two head-streams. It is a broad and picturesque stream, but shallow. It is navigable for small steamboats up to Yenchow and higher still for junks; but Hangchow the capital of the province is cut off from communication by large vessels. The river is famous for the so-called Hangchow Bore (p. 6).

16. *Huangpu.*—This stream derives its importance from the town of Shanghai which is situated on it, 14 miles from the coast, where the river runs into the Yangtze mouth. *Vide* Huangpu Conservancy, Chap. XXIII.

LAKES

The chief lakes of China Proper are:—

1. The *Tungting* lake in Hunan. In summer, when it receives the overflow of the Yangtze, its dimensions reach 75 miles in length and 65 in breadth (2000 sq. miles); but in winter the lake empties its waters into the Yangtze and becomes merely an enormous marsh, with two main river channels passing through it, the Yuenkiang and Siangkiang. In 1910 the provincial authorities made a start of dredging the lake, a machine having been bought for that purpose in Germany. The dredger was manned and operated by a Chinese crew, and began work on the Changteh channel.

2. The *Po-yang* lake in Kiangsi; 90 miles by 20 (approx.). The water

rises nearly 30 ft. in the flood season, when the area of the lake is approximately 1800 sq. miles.

3. The *Tai-hu*, or Great Lake, in Kiangsu, S. of the Yangtze. Its greatest dimensions are approximately 50 miles by 40 miles, but its waters recede in winter.

4. The *Hungtseh* lake in Kiangsu and Anhui, N. of the Yangtze, connected on the N.E. with the Grand Canal and on the S.E. with

5. The *Kaoyiu* lake, also in Kiangsu.

6. The *Tatsung* lake lies E. of the Kaoyiu, on the other side of the Grand Canal.

7. The *Tien-hu* lake in Yunnan, S. of Yunnanfu; approximately 38 miles in length and 8 in width and lying at an altitude of 6300 ft.

8. The *Eulhai* lake, also in Yunnan, E. of Talifu. It lies at an altitude of 6500 ft. above sea-level, but is slightly smaller than the Tien-hu.

9. In Manchuria are to be found the *Dalai-nor* and *Buir-nor*, or *Pir Lake*, both S.W. of Kailar, and *Lake Hinka* (*Khanka*) in the extreme east of the province, W. of the Ussuri River.

In Tibet and Chinese Turkestan recent exploration has added largely to our knowledge of the lake system of these vast territories. Here it will suffice to enumerate the principal lakes.

1. *Koko-nor*, in N.E. Tibet near the borders of Kansu, 65 miles long and 40 wide, with an area of 2300 sq. miles. It lies at an altitude of 10,500 ft. above sea-level. Its waters are salt.

2. *Tsaidam*, west of the Koko-nor, now little more than a dreary swamp.

3. *Lob-nor*, north of the Altyn Tagh range. Between 1877 and the present day this once important expanse of water has diminished in size to an enormous extent. Of these three basins Dr. A. H. Keane says in Stanford's *Compendium of Geography*: "The gradual isolation of all these basins affords one of the most striking illustrations of the process of desiccation that has been going on throughout Central Asia from the remotest times. First the Koko-nor fails to reach the Tsaidam; then the Tsaidam ceases to communicate with Lob-nor and ultimately dries up, while Lob-nor sinks to a mere reedy morass some 3 or 4 feet deep."

4. *Kizil-Bash* or Lake Ulungur, between the Tienshan and Altai Mountains.

5. *Ike Aral-nor*, } in the extreme west of Mongolia.
6. *Ubsa-nor*, }

7. *Lake Bogratch*, south of the Bogdo-ola Mountains.

8. *Kara-nor*, in the Nan-shan (Mountains), north-west of Koko-nor.

9. *Tengri-nor*, north of Lhasa: altitude 15,000 ft.

10. *Palti* or *Yamdok* lake, 13,800 ft. above sea-level, 160 miles in circumference, south-west of Lhasa.

11. *Buka-nor*, north of Tengri-nor, forming with the

12. *Ike-namur*, the centre of a large lake system, which includes the

13. *Dangra-yum*, 250 miles west of Tengri-nor, 180 miles in circumference, and the

14. *Garing-cho*, altitude 15,420 ft.

CHAPTER II

GEOLOGY

THE geological formation of China belongs for the most part to the Primary and Secondary periods. There is practically no trace of Azoic strata nor of the Jurassic and Cretaceous series of rocks that belong to the close of the Secondary period. The two characteristic features of the country are (1) the limestone formation (called China or Sinian limestone) that extends all over China; this belongs to the period when the central and northern portions of China were submerged under deep water; and (2) the loess formation of North China, extending for 1400 miles, a solid but friable earth, of brownish-yellow colour, highly porous. The limestone attains in parts enormous thickness, a maximum of nearly 11,000 feet being found in Szechuan. Loess consists mainly of clay, carbonate of lime and sand, and its origin is explained by the joint action of wind and rain. The dust and sand of the central Asian steppes have been mixed with countless generations of decaying plants. Rain is at once absorbed by it, and streams cut their way through it to the subsoil, leaving a vertical wall on each side, often hundreds of feet in height. Loess soil bears excellent crops; but as irrigation is impossible the country where it is found is dependent entirely on a favourable rainfall. Loess in places attains a thickness of 2000 feet, and is found at altitudes of from 6000 to 8000 feet.

The limestone formation in China was succeeded by carboniferous strata, which in turn are overlain by sedimentary deposits of sandstone, shales, and conglomerates.

Volcanic action has had little, if any, effect on the general configuration of the country. Traces, however, remain (L. Richard points out) in the neighbourhood of Nanking, the north of Peking, in some regions of Mongolia and in Tibet.

CHAPTER III

FAUNA

Wild Animals

THE *lion* is no longer found in China. It is supposed that at one time lions were numerous in Hunan, Kuantung, Kuangsi, and Kueichou, and they probably lingered on in the last two provinces until more recent times.

The *elephant* is found only in Southern Yunnan.

The *tiger* is met with in greater numbers in Kueichou, and also in Fukien, Kuangtung, Kuangsi, and in Manchuria.

The *leopard* or *panther* (*Felis pardus*) is found wherever the country is of a nature to afford him shelter and food. In Tibet and the highlands of Chinese Turkestan, this animal is replaced by the *ounce* or *snow-leopard* (*Felis onca*), a beautiful species found only at great elevations, where it preys on ibex and wild sheep. The Himalayan *black bear* (*Ursus tibetanus*) is found in the hills of Yunnan and Szechuan. The scientific name of this bear is somewhat of a misnomer, as it is rare in Tibet, the animal generally not being found at a greater elevation than 8000 feet. In the winter, which it passes without hibernating, it descends to the warmer valleys. In Tibet, the Pamirs, and adjacent regions, a brown bear (*Ursus isabellinus*) occurs, which is only found at great elevations. Further north this bear is replaced by the brown bear of Europe and Siberia (*Ursus arctos*). This bear is found wherever forest occurs from the Tianshan in the west to the east of Manchuria. Both these brown bears hibernate in the winter. It is possible that the black bear of Korea may also occur in Eastern Manchuria. The *camel* (*Camelus bactrianus*) is found in a wild state in the wastes of Northern Tibet, the *horse* (*Equus preyevalskii*) on the borders of Chinese and Russian Tartary, while a species of *wild ass* (*Asinus nemionus*) is common in Tibet, Sinkiang, and Mongolia. This species, inhabiting a very elevated region, where the most intense cold is experienced in winter, is nearly, if not quite, identical with the wild ass of the low-lying Indian desert, a region noted for the intense heat of its summer. The *yak* or *grunting-ox* (*Poephagus grunniens*) is only found at great elevations in Tibet and the Pamirs, and in a domesticated state is the beast of burden of those regions. For this it is particularly suited, as it possesses great powers of climbing and making its way across mountain torrents in which any other animal would be drowned. It feeds only on grass, and cannot endure even moderate heat. A hybrid is also produced between the domestic yak and the ox.

Of the *deer* tribe, the *reindeer* (*Tarandus rangifer*), wild and domesticated, is found in the region of the upper waters of the Yenisei in Northern Mongolia. The Asiatic *wapiti* or *shou* (*Cervus affinis*) is found in Mongolia, Chinese Turkestan, and Tibet. Its horns in a partially formed state are greatly prized for medicinal purposes by the Chinese, and consequently command a very high price as an object of commerce. It is therefore to be feared that this magnificent stag will ere long be extinct. Other representatives of the deer tribe are the *fallow-deer* (*Dama vulgaris*), *Asiatic roe-deer* (*Capreolus pygargus*), somewhat larger than the European species, *barking-deer* (*Cervulus aureus*), and the hornless river-deer of the Yangtze Valley (*Hydropotes inermis*). The *musk-deer* (*Moschus moschiferus*), also hornless, deserves a special mention, as the muskpod obtained from this animal forms an important article of commerce. It is found throughout Tibet and the highlands to the north, its habitat being practically identical with that of the yak and the snow-leopard.

Of the *antelope* family, there are not many species within Chinese limits, the true antelopes being only represented by the Tibetan antelope (*Kemas hodgsoni*) and the smaller Tibetan gazelle (*Procapra picticaudata*), together with the Saiga antelope (*Saiga tartarica*) and the gazelle (*Procapra gutturosa*) of North China and Mongolia, the last two species replacing the former farther to the north. Among the goat-antelopes, one, if not more, species of gooral (*Nemorhoedus*) inhabits the hills of Central China, and the curious *takin* (*Budorcas taxicolor*) was discovered in the extreme east of the Himalayan region, whence it doubtless ranges into the hills of Yunnan and Szechuan. A completely new species of these large mountain goat-antelopes was discovered on the hills of Shensi in 1911 by the Duke of Bedford's scientific expedition to Eastern Asia, and has been named (*Budorcas bedfordi*). The fact that this remarkable species, which is of a uniform yellowish-white colour, was discovered so recently is a proof of the incompleteness of our general knowledge of the Chinese fauna.

The true goats are represented by the magnificent *ibex* (*Capra sibirica*) of the highlands of Tibet and Central Asia. In the Tianshan, the horns of this species attain to a length of more than 50 inches.

Many species of *wild sheep* inhabit the hills of Tibet, Central Asia, and Mongolia. The list of species now established includes *Ovis vignei*, *nahura*, *karelini*, *hodgsoni*, *ammon*, and the great wild sheep of the Pamirs, *Ovis poli*. This species was first recorded by Marco Polo in his *Travels*, and his statement about them was held to be a "traveller's tale," till recent exploration established his absolute accuracy in this as in so many other matters. The horns of this great sheep attain a length of over 70 inches.

The *wild boar* (*Sus leucomystax*) is common in China Proper, the *wolf* (*Canis laniger* and *lupus*) occurs in Tibet and Mongolia, a *wild dog* (*Cuon rutilans*) is found in Tibet, the *jackal* (*Canis aureus*) in South China.

Species of *foxes*, *wild cats*, *monkeys*, *squirrels*, *rats*, *jerboas*, *bats*, etc., are numerous. There are several species of *hares*. Valuable furs are obtained from Mongolia, e.g. the *white hare*, *black fox*, *marmot*, *marten* *ermine*, *sable*, and *otter* being trapped for their skins.

Of sea mammals, the *fur seal* and *sea otter* inhabit a part of the Northern Pacific, which since the loss of the Primorsk Province can no longer be considered as belonging to the Chinese area ; but other species of seals, walruses, etc., are found in the China seas. The cetaceans are represented by several species of whales and porpoises, and the great rivers of China contain at least one species of freshwater porpoise, similar to the porpoises of the Ganges and Indus.

Domestic Animals

The domestic animals of the Chinese include the horse, mule, donkey, camel, water-buffalo, cow, zebu or humped ox, yak, pig, goat, sheep dog, cat, also rabbits, fowls, ducks, geese, and pigeons. Camel caravans are a feature of Northern China.

Ponies are imported in large numbers from Mongolia to China Proper. Szechuan and Kueichou, however, produce the best breeds.

Birds

Birds are exceedingly numerous in China, about 800 species being indigenous to the country. They include most of the well-known members of the feathered kingdom, the families of the eagles, vultures, hawks, kites, owls, cranes, herons, storks, gulls, cormorants, pigeons, cuckoos, kingfishers, finches, tits, swifts, swallows, etc. etc., being represented by great numbers of species.

The country abounds in small game. China is *par excellence* the home of the pheasant family, of which there are nine or more species.

There are many varieties of the partridges (bamboo partridge, Chinese francolin, chukor, etc.) and sandgrouse. The following birds are chiefly migratory, and visit China from their breeding grounds in the north in countless thousands during the cold season, namely, the woodcock and snipe (seven species), quail, bustard, and plovers of many kinds. The wildfowl include swans (two species), geese (six species), duck, and teal (of which eighteen species are commonly shot by sportsmen in China, though many others visit the country or are indigenous to it). The beautiful mandarin duck (*Aix galericulata*) is peculiar to the Far East. Cormorants are used by fishermen in Central and Southern China. The edible-nest swiftlet (*Collocalia francica*) breeds on the islands of the south coast and the Malay archipelago. Its nests are formed entirely of inspissated saliva, and are collected for the well-known Chinese delicacy, birds'-nest soup. The Pallas's sandgrouse (*Syrrhaptes paradoxus*) is remarkable for its occasional wanderings in immense numbers across the entire continent of Asia and Europe, extending as far as Ireland and Portugal. The last of these incursions occurred in 1885, another having occurred some twenty years previously. On the last occasion numerous pairs of these birds bred in England and other parts of Western Europe, but the conditions being unsuited to the habits of the birds they very soon became extinct.

Reptiles

The more formidable kinds of snakes are confined for the most part to the southern portion of China, where various species of cobras and vipers, also the karait (*bungarus fasciatus*) occur. In the forests of Yunnan the great *python reticulata*, a non-poisonous constrictor which feeds chiefly on monkeys, is found. A deadly snake, the *bothrops*, is found in the Gobi Desert, where reptiles of many kinds abound.

The Chinese alligator of the Yangtze-kiang and the giant salamander are generally identical with their American counterparts. Turtles, tortoises, together with terrapins, lizards, newts, frogs, etc., are commo .

Fish

Fish forms with rice the principal staple of the daily food of the Chinese. Both in the inland waters and along the coast fish abound, and fishing has constituted a prominent occupation of the people from the earliest times. Little change, moreover, has been introduced into the methods of Chinese fishing since the infancy of the industry.

For deep-sea fishing nets and hooks are used, the former being worked singly or by a pair of boats, and in some places by a group of boats forming a company. In the deeper inland tidal waters stake nets are used; heavy beams are driven into the ground 30 feet apart, tied together at the surface by means of a strong bamboo rope covered with straw; bamboo baskets are suspended in the nets, with the opening towards the net, and in these the fish are caught when trying to escape the net. In rivers and canals various methods of fishing are employed, among the most usual being (1) the large flat dip net, worked mainly from the shore, the net being spread over movable bamboo poles attached to pegs in the ground, while ropes lead from the end of the net to a wheel in the hut of the fisherman on shore; (2) the casting net, worked either from the shore or in a boat with a companion using the oars; (3) the small dip net; (4) the weir, made of poles, to which rolls of bamboo matting are attached. These are unrolled and set up at high water, and with the falling tide the fish are gathered in. Each corner of the weir is formed into a series of alleys, where the fish are caught and removed by means of a scoop net. Eels are sometimes harpooned, while crabs, shrimps, and prawns are caught with nets, basket traps, and also with the line, in the case of large crabs. Fishing with cormorants is practised in the Yangtze delta, Chekiang province and in other parts of the country, while the otter was used at one time in a similar capacity in the upper reaches of the Yangtze.

Several hundred varieties of fish are known to the Chinese, for nearly all of which some use is found, even when not edible. In the International Fisheries Exhibition (London) of 1883, the Chinese section contained 167 varieties, belonging to forty-seven families. Reference was made in the Chinese catalogue to sixteen varieties of shark:—

Hammer-headed Shark (12 ft. long).
White Shark (20 ft.).
Shovel-nosed Sucker (25 ft.).

Dog Shark (4–5 ft.).
Saw Fish (15 ft.).
Horny-headed Shark.
Tiger Shark (8 ft.).
*Big Round-headed Shark (15–25 ft.).
*Blue Rat Moth Shark (10 ft.).
*White Rat Moth Shark (10 ft.).
*Coarse-skinned Shark (10 ft.).
*Small-eyed Shark (6–7 ft.).
*Eat-bird Shark (11 ft.).
*Long-tailed Third Lady Shark (10 ft.).
*Mullet-killing Shark (5–6 ft.).
*Real Spotted-deer Shark (6 ft).

The mango fish attains a length of 7 or 8 feet, and cod of 6 feet are also caught. Among the better-known kinds of fish may also be enumerated bream, carp, eel, flounder, gurnard, herring, mandarin fish, mullet, perch, silver pomfret, sole, skate, sprat. The cuttle-fish industry has contributed largely to swell the Customs returns under the heading of " Fish and Fishery Products," but no statistics are available to indicate the extent of China's fisheries. Oysters are grown largely along the Chekiang coast, in the neighbourhood of Ningpo, in Nimrod Sound, at the Saddle Islands, in the Chusan archipelago, at Deep Bay (Hongkong), and elsewhere. The trepang, or sea-slug, is collected for the market, and many kinds of molluscs, also eaten by the Chinese, are obtained in great profusion on the coast and in the estuaries of rivers.

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* Translation of Chinese name.

CHAPTER IV

FLORA

DEFORESTATION has played an active part on the surface of China, with the result that large forests in China Proper are rare. They are met with, however, in certain districts of Central Asia, in S.E. Tibet and in Mongolia and Manchuria. In Eastern Turkestan are to be found the birch, pine, fir, spruce, larch, and poplar, while in the less favoured districts artemisia and tamarisks relieve the stretches of reeds and coarse grass that cover the steppes. In S.E. Tibet may be seen the juniper, willow, pines, firs, cedars, elms and a large species of holly; while in the sheltered valleys grow wheat, barley, rice, fruit trees and vegetables. The medicinal rhubarb-tree is also a native of these plateaux. The tree grows to a height of eight or ten feet, and the rhubarb of commerce is its root, dug up early in spring, cut into long flat pieces and dried. Dwarf elms and willows are met with in the Gobi Desert. In northern Mongolia and Manchuria the same trees reappear, together with the oak and walnut. Orchards of pear, plum and apple trees are a common feature of Manchuria, with even vineyards in the south, and here begins the gradual transition in the aspect of the flora, from the cold north to the semi-tropical vegetation of southern China.

The Chinese flora is exceedingly rich in varieties. In his *Index Florae Sinensis* Sir W. Thiselton-Dyer enumerates 8271 species (4230 endemic) and estimates that the whole flora comprises 12,000 species.

The fruits include practically all those known to temperate zones as well as many sub-tropical kinds. Among them may be mentioned apples, apricots, bananas, cherries, chestnuts, dates, figs, grapes, guavas, lemons, litchies, loquats, mangoes, melons, mulberries, oranges, pears, peaches, persimmons, plums, pomegranates, pomeloes, raspberries, strawberries.

Among the products of agriculture are barley, beans (the great staple of Manchuria), buckwheat, cotton, ground-nut, hemp, indigo, kaoliang, maize, millet, oats, poppy (opium), ramie, rape, rice, sesamum, sugar, tea, tobacco, and wheat. The cultivation of camphor is carried on in Fukien, Kuangsi and Yunnan.

Chinese timbers include pine, fir, maple, ebony, oak, camphor, teak, mahogany, birch, plane, elm. In this category may be mentioned the bamboo, which looms so largely in the everyday life of the Chinese. With it they build houses and erect temporary shelters: it is used for all scaffolding purposes, and for the transport of all goods by human agency, from the smallest market produce to a grand piano in a foreign settlement. In early life it is used for food; when full grown it supplies the vast water population with masts, and from it are made chopsticks, pipes, umbrellas, tables, stools and musical instruments. Between forty and sixty varieties of bamboo are said to be known to the Chinese.

Among other trees worthy of mention are the varnish-tree (*Rhus vernicifera*), the tallow-tree (*Stillingia sebifera*), wood-oil tree (*Aleurites cordata*) and vegetable-wax tree (*Fraxinus chinensis*).

Of flowering plants China has an unnumbered variety, and many household names in the flower world are derived from this country. Among them may be mentioned azaleas (a striking feature in the landscape of the Chekiang hills and elsewhere), camellias, gardenias, peonies, and certain varieties of roses, orchids and chrysanthemums.

Twelve species of rhododendrons are met with in Szechuan, where rhododendron forests are found at altitudes ranging from 2000 to 12,000 ft.

CHAPTER V

CLIMATE AND METEOROLOGY

General Description

THE climate of China—of the coast-line exclusively and of the interior in a gradually diminishing degree as one proceeds westwards—is governed by the incidence of the monsoons. In summer the ascending currents of air over the sandy deserts of Mongolia and Central Asia draw in a current from the Pacific Ocean ; in the winter the colder air descends from the high table-land of the interior upon the regions that gradually slope away to sea-level. The *summer monsoon*—S. or S.W. along the southern coast, S.E. at Shanghai and S.W. further north—sets in progressively from the end of March or April in the north to May in the Formosa Channel. The *winter monsoon* blows N.W. in the lower Yangtze Valley, N. in Northern China, while in the south its direction is N.E. to E. It blows in the main from September until April.

At Hankow in Central China the winter monsoon (N.W. to N.E.) blows for 7 or 8 months, from August to April, while the summer monsoon (S.E). blows for only 7 or 8 weeks in June and July.

Summer is the period of greater humidity, and this with the attendant rise in temperature makes this season of the year enervating and trying to Europeans. The winters are bracing and enjoyable ; clear, dry and sunny in the north with extreme cold ; less cold but clear in Central China ; while in the south they must be termed cool only relatively to the climatic conditions of a sub-tropical country.

As a whole, the climate of China may be said to compare favourably with that of any other part of the world lying between the same parallels of latitude. Owing to its enormous extent, however, it offers every variety of meteorological conditions from the sixty degrees of frost in Manchuria to the malaria-ridden swamps of a sub-tropical Yunnan. In the northern section the winters are severe, the ground is covered with snow, the rivers remain frozen for several months, and the greater part of the coast-line of Chihli, together with the Gulf of Liaotung, is ice-bound. In summer the thermometer ranges to 110° or more, while the daily variation may be as great as 55°. Dust storms are prevalent in the spring and autumn months. Central China is more humid, with a marked rainy season in summer. The extremes of temperature may be placed between 14° and 104° Fahrenheit. In Szechuan, Yunnan and Kueichou the rainfall is greater ; the climate is damp and fogs are frequent. In Southern China sub-tropical conditions obtain, but with conspicuous modifications due to altitude.

On the high table-land of Central Asia and on the plains of Mongolia the extremes of heat and cold are combined with excessive dryness. The rains, however, penetrate across the mountain chains of the Tibeto-Chinese frontier and to the Alashan range in south-east Mongolia. West of this line the region of excessive dryness is met, where for months not a single snowflake will fall, but where the cold is so intense that the bodies of dead animals dry up where they fall without passing through the process of putrefaction (Stanford).

In the Tarim basin and West Mongolia there is scarcely any spring, intensely cold and late winters being followed almost immediately by equally intense heat, when the glass rises even in April to 93° F. in the shade (Prjevalsky, quoted by Stanford).[1] Travellers in Mongolia and Tibet bear testimony to the violence of the sand storms in these high regions. Similar storms are frequent in the winter months in the north of China Proper, and are experienced many miles out at sea in the Gulf of Pechihli.

Reference has been made to the monsoons. Another feature of the meteorology of the China coast is the typhoon. These cyclonic storms are formed over the Pacific in a region not far removed from the islands Yap and Guam (telegraph stations), and moving north-west strike the coast of Indo-China, or veering north-east reach the coast of China or Japan. The storm centre is marked by very low barometric pressure, and the wind blows round this, inwards towards the centre, from right to left (against the hands of the clock), at a speed that may reach from 50 to 110 miles an hour, while the centre itself is moving forward at from 8 to 50 miles an hour, the usual rate in the north part of the China Sea being 9 miles. Typhoons rarely reach Shanghai, being more often diverted inland south of that port or recurving towards Japan. They average on the coast sixteen a year.

For meteorological statistics China is indebted to the Observatories of Sicawei, near Shanghai, and Hongkong, situated on the Kowloon peninsula at a height of 109 feet above mean sea-level. The former was founded and is maintained by the Jesuits; it enjoys deservedly a high reputation in the meteorological world. It is in telegraphic communication with the following stations and through them keeps the shipping of the Far East in constant touch with meteorological developments.

> *Stations.*—Vladivostok, Newchwang, Shanhaikuan, Tientsin, Taku, Chefoo, Weihaiwei, Tsingtao, Tokio, Hankow, Chinkiang, Woosung, Shanghai, Gutzlaff, Chenhai (Ningpo), Wenchow, Santuao, Foochow, Taihoku (Formosa), Amoy, Swatow.

The following statistics are taken from Sicawei publications. [Present Director of the Observatory, Père Froc. Publications: *Calendrier-Annuaire*, *Bulletins*, etc. *The Climate of Shanghai*, by Père Jos. de Moidrey S.J.]:—

SHANGHAI (Sicawei Observatory)

Average annual rainfall (1874–1909) 44·1 inches (in Hongkong 84·13 in., in Peking 25 in.).

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[1] *Op. cit.*

Average number of days on which rain has fallen in measurable quantities: 124 per annum (1874–1909).

Maximum rainfall in 24 hours, 7·7 inches (October 24, 1875).

MEAN BAROMETRIC PRESSURE

(Reduced to freezing-point and sea-level)

	Shanghai.	Hongkong.	Foochow.	Chungking.	Chefoo.	Peking.
January . .	30·33	30·16	30·26	30·22	30·20	30·37
February .	30·28	30·14	30·24	30·12	30·27	30·21
March . .	30·17	30·06	30·14	30·06	30·17	30·22
April . .	30·00	29.96	30·00	29·96	30·04	30·05
May . .	29·87	29·86	29·91	29·81	29·85	29·87
June . .	29·74	29.76	29·78	29·69	29·67	29·67
July . .	29·69	29·73	29·73	29·64	29·59	29·66
August . .	29·73	29·74	29·75	29·72	29·63	29·79
September .	29·91	29·84	29·86	30·00	29·82	29·85
October . .	30·11	29·99	30·02	30.10	30·03	30·14
November .	30·24	30·11	30·16	30·19	30·15	30·33
December .	30·31	30·19	30·26	30·32	30·17	30·35
Yearly mean .	30·03 in.	29·96 in.	30·00 in.	29·97 in.	29·96 in.	30·04 in.

RAINFALL (Monthly Average)

	Shanghai (1873–1902). in.	Hongkong (1884–1907). in.
January . .	2·15	1·41
February . .	2·29	1·70
March . .	3·21	2·95
April . . .	3·57	5·66
May . . .	3·60	12·75 (48·84 max.)
June . . .	6·66	16·43 (34·37 max.)
July . . .	5·10	12·37 (28·23 max)
August . .	5·94	14·29 (27·86 max.)
September . .	4·72	9·47 (30·60 max.)
October . .	3·31	4·53
November . .	1·85	1.51
December . .	1·18	1·06
Yearly average .	43·60	84·13

MAXIMUM TEMPERATURES, F. (Shanghai)

	Deg.		Deg.		Deg.		Deg.
1873	100·4	1884	95·7	1895	100·2	1906	98·1
1874	97·7	1885	100·2	1896	100·0	1907	97·0
1875	102·0	1886	98·6	1897	102·0	1908	97·0
1876	96·3	1887	100·4	1898	101·7	1909	101·1
1877	94·3	1888	100·1	1899	99·3	1910	100·9
1878	97·7	1889	100·4	1900	100·4	1911	95·6
1879	101·7	1890	99·1	1901	97·0	1912	99·3
1880	96·1	1891	98·6	1902	93·0	1913	101·4
1881	96·4	1892	102·9	1903	97·9		
1882	94·3	1893	100·4	1904	95·9		
1883	97·3	1894	102·9	1905	99·7		

MEAN TEMPERATURES AND HUMIDITY

	Shanghai (34 years).		Hongkong (24 years).		
	Mean Temp.	Humidity Mean.	Mean Temp.	(Absolute Maximum.)	Humidity Mean.
January .	37·4° F.	80	60·0° F.	79·3° F.	74
February .	39·0	79	58·0	79·1	76
March . .	46·2	79	62·7	82·1	83
April . .	56·0	80	70·2	88·6	85
May . .	64·2	80	76·8	91·5	83
June . .	74·8	84	80·7	93·6	83
July . .	79·6	84	81·8	94·0	82
August . .	79·5	84	81·3	97·0	83
September .	72·3	84	80·4	94·0	77
October. .	63·2	80	76·3	93·8	71
November .	52·0	77	69·2	85·6	65
December .	41·6	76	62·7	81·9	66
Yearly mean .	58·8° F.	80	76·3° F.		77

SNOW

Snow, which is a permanent feature in winter of the northern landscape, becomes of rarer occurrence farther south, until in the southern provinces it appears on the higher ground only. In Shanghai snow falls every winter, but may be regarded as rare. Sicawei Observatory shows the following table :—

Month.	Maximum Number of Days.
November	1 (six times)
December	4 (1882)
January	8 (1893)
February	5 (three times)
March	5 (twice)
April	1 (1882)

WIND

Annual Variation.

Month.	Shanghai.	Hongkong.
January	N. 9° W.	E. 14° N.
February	N. 8° W.	E. 14° N.
March	N. 52° E.	E. 7° N.
April	S. 76° E.	E.
May	S. 55° E.	E. 13° S.
June	S. 53° E.	E. 53° S.
July	S. 39° E.	E. 54° S.
August	S. 62° E.	E. 51° S.
September . . .	N. 45° E.	E. 11° N.
October	N. 31° E.	E. 19° N.
November . . .	N. 8° W.	E. 28° N.
December	N. 23° W.	E. 24° N.

The following records for Shanghai for 1910 are included in the Annual Report of the Municipal Council, while those for Weihaiwei are taken from the Annual Report of that colony for 1910 :—

SHANGHAI METEOROLOGICAL RECORDS, 1910

		Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	1910.
Barometer.	Mean in Inches.	30·257	30·264	30·141	30·037	29·896	29·707	29·624	29·664	29·895	30·123	30·186	30·370	30·019
	Departure from Average.	−0·065	−0·018	−0·031	+0·032	+0·025	−0·030	−0·060	−0·064	−0·013	+0·018	−0·059	−0·064	−0·017
Temperature.	Mean Fahr.	37·36	37·15	45·57	53·46	63·05	74·32	82·45	84·76	73·12	63·00	53·11	39·27	58·56
	Departure from Average.	− 0·47	− 1·96	− 0·43	− 2·73	− 2·54	+ 1·05	+ 2·14	+ 0·52	+ 0·27	− 0·39	+ 1·20	− 2·86	− 0·51
Daily Range of Temperature.	Mean	12·17	15·14	15·41	15·57	18·00	14·99	16·70	16·96	16·20	20·66	18·72	14·47	16·25
	Departure from Average.	− 1·20	+ 1·62	+ 0·40	− 1·12	+ 0·67	− 0·27	+ 1·89	+ 1·64	+ 0·59	+ 3·76	+ 1·73	− 1·60	+0·676
Degree of Humidity.	Mean Saturation, 100	79·0	75·1	78·9	81·4	82·1	87·1	82·8	83·1	80·3	77·7	79·6	75·1	80·18
	Departure from Average.	− 0·6	− 3·6	− 0·5	+ 1·3	+ 2·5	+ 3·1	− 1·4	− 1·2	− 2·8	− 2·1	+ 2·1	− 0·9	− 0·34
Rainfall.	Amount in Inches.	5·76	1·12	5·95	2·75	3·93	11·54	3·44	2·01	1·77	1·40	4·05	0·83	44·55
	Departure from Average.	+ 3·58	− 1·18	+ 2·52	− 0·99	+ 0·36	+ 4·93	− 2·11	− 3·83	− 2·88	− 2·03	+ 2·29	− 0·38	+ 0·28

WEIHAIWEI METEOROLOGICAL RETURN, 1910

1910	BAROMETER				TEMPERATURE						RAIN OR SNOW	
	Highest in Month	Lowest in Month	Mean for Month	Range	Highest in Month	Lowest in Month	Range in Month	Mean of Highest	Mean of Lowest	Mean daily Range	Days it fell	Amount collected
	Inches	Inches	Inches	Inches	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.	°F.		Inches
January . .	30·500	29·840	30·219	·660	49	2	47	36	17	19	6 (4 snow)	·78
February .	30·600	29·860	30·253	·740	52	2	50	41	17	24	1 (snow)	·00
March . .	30·414	29·760	30·162	·654	62	17	45	48	25	23	2	·80
April . .	30·408	29·816	30·075	·592	72	24	48	58	36	22	2	·68
May . .	30·228	29·554	29·948	·674	90	35	55	75	49	26	1	·07
June . .	29·926	29·426	29·739	·500	91	46	45	80	56	24	9	5·02
July . .	29·936	29·462	29·731	·474	91	58	33	83	63	20	15	10·63
August . .	29·980	29·354	29·782	·626	90	60	30	84	65	19	11	7·67
September .	30·350	29·800	30·049	·550	81	51	30	76	58	18	4	·55
October . .	30·430	29·962	30·220	·468	78	41	37	69	48	21	1	·05
November .	30·482	29·496	30·185	·986	71	21	50	54	35	19	14 (2 snow)	9·18
December .	30·626	29·940	30·332	·686	45	8	37	36	19	17	8 (7 snow)	·75
Mean .	30·323	29·689	30·058	·634	73	30	42	62	40	21	74*	36·18*

* Totals.

CHAPTER VI

PEOPLE AND LANGUAGE

UPWARDS of sixty different peoples or tribes are to be reckoned among the inhabitants of China and its dependencies, who comprise, roughly speaking, one-fourth of the inhabitants of the earth. Practically nine-tenths of the total population is to be found in China Proper, and of these the great majority is of the Chinese race. All with the exception of the few Iranians of Kashgaria and Sungaria, and possibly of some little-known hill tribes, belong physically to various branches of the great Mongolo-Tartar family.

The following table of the races of the Empire is taken from Stanford's *Compendium of Geography and Travel*, *Asia*, Vol. I (by A. H. Keane, LL.D.), to which reference may profitably be made for fuller information :—

TABLE OF RACES IN THE CHINESE EMPIRE

I. MONGOLOID RACES OF MONGOLO-TARTAR POLYSYLLABIC SPEECH

Sharra or Eastern Mongolians	Khalka	Tushetu Tsi-tseng Jasaktu (Sain-noin)	N. Mongolia mainly
	Uchumsin : Chakar Genshikten : Barin Kartsin : Jarot Uniot : Sunni Tumet : Kortsin Durban : Urut Naiman : Ahkhanar		S., E. and S.E. Mongolia
	Ordos		N. bend of the Huang-ho
Eleuts (Kalmuks) or Western Mongolians	Chorass Turgut Khoshot Durbat		Sungaria, Kulja, N.W. Mongolia
Urianhai			Upper Yenisei basin
Sok-pa			N.E. Kachi (N.E. Tibet)
Taldi (?)			W. Kansu
Tungus Family	Manchus Tungus		Manchuria
	Solons Sibos		Upper Ili Valley, Kulja

Turki Family	Taranchi	Kulja
	Kirghiz-Kazaks	
	Kara-Kirghiz	Central Tian-shan
	Kashgarians	Tarim basin, Kulja
	Dolans	Kashgaria
	Salars (Kara-Tanguts)	? About source of Yangtze
	Horpa	W. Kachi (N.W. Tibet)

II. Mongoloid Races of Tibetan Intermediate Speech

	Bod-pa (Tibetans proper)	San-po basin mainly
	Tanguts (Northern Tibetans)	Kansi, Kokonor, Tsaidam
	Drok-pa	Central Kachi, between Sokpa and Horpa
	Chak-pa	
	Cham-pa	E. of Noh, Tibet
	Kham pa	? Central Lake region, Tibet
	Chang-pa	E. of the Khampa
Si-fan	Andoan, Tochu	Tibeto-Chinese frontier from Koko-nor to Yunnan
	Arru, Gyarung, Telu,	
	Manyak, Melam	

III. Mongoloid Races of Chinese Isolating Speech

Chinese Proper	N. and Central China
Punti	Kuangtung
Hui-chan	
Hakka	Kuangtung, Fukien
Hok-lo	Swatow district
Tungans	Kansu, Sungaria, Kulja
Khambing	Kulja
Chimpan extinct ?	
Khato-zun	

IV. Highland Races of Undetermined Ethnical and Linguistic Affinities

	Man-tse (I-jeu)	W. Szechuan
	Sumu	
Miaotze or Nanman Group	Pe-Lolo	S. bend of the Yangtze S. Szechuan, N. Yunnan
	Shu-Lolo	
	He-Lolo	
	Sen-Lolo	
	Chung, Nguchung, Tuman, Kilao, Kitao	Kueichou uplands
	Yao	Lipo district. S. side Nanling Mts.
	Seng	Nanling Mts.
	Tung	N. Kuangtung
	Lyssu (Li-so)	S.E. Tibet between Lutsekiang and Lantsankiang
	Mos(s)o (civilized Lyssu)	N.W. Yunnan, S. of the Lyssu
	Lu-tse (Anong)	N. of the Lyssu
	Remepang	E. of the Lyssu

Pagni (Bai, Terong, or Bayul)	W. of the Lu-tse
Tsarong	N. of the Lu-tse
Ku-tse	N. of the Remepang
Diju	N. of the Ku-tse
Jrupa	N. of the Diju
Mu-ua (Anampel)	Upper Irrawadi, Burmese frontier
Shutung	W. Yunnan
Shang-lai Shuk-lai	Island of Hainan

V. Aryan Stock and Speech

Tajiks	Kashgaria, Kulja
Kara-Kultsi (?)	Lower Tarim River
Lobnorski or Kara-kurchin	Lob-nor district

The theory that the Chinese originally migrated from the west (from some part of Mesopotamia south of the Caspian Sea, according to Prof. Terrien de Lacouperie; from Khotan in the south-west of Eastern Turkestan, according to Baron von Richthofen) has obtained general credence. It has to be pointed out, however, that the lines of reasoning leading up to this conjecture have not passed unchallenged. Chinese literature in any case knows only of the present provinces of Kansu and Shensi as the cradle of Chinese civilization. If, therefore, there was at any time a general immigration from the west, it remains in the present condition of archæological research a matter of inference rather than of knowledge.

Historical

For practical purposes we may regard the China of to-day as existing from the twenty-first century B.C., with the Chinese settled in the upper valley of the Yellow River, in occupation of the country now known as Kansu, Shensi, Shansi and Honan. The Chinese themselves have selected a date for this period earlier than 3000 B.C., but on such a subject the critical faculty of native historians will not unnaturally be subordinated to dictates of patriotism. The names of the two Emperors Yao and Shun mark the transition from the legendary to the more or less historical period, and with their successor Yu we start the first Chinese dynasty, the Hsia dynasty (2205–1766 B.C.).

The two succeeding dynasties, the Shang and Chou, lasted respectively from 1766 B.C. to 1122 B.C., and from 1122 B.C. to 249 B.C. It was during the latter dynasty that China's three great philosophers flourished —Laotze (604 B.C.), Confucius (551–479 B.C.), and Mencius (372–289 B.C.). Already in the fourth century B.C. the feudal states, constantly at war with one another, had been gaining power at the expense of the central authority, and for sixty years before the last Chou Emperor abdicated the hegemony of the then Chinese Empire was virtually in the hands of Tsin, that gave its name to the next dynasty.

The Tsin dynasty was of short duration, 249–206 B.C., while it is probable that its authority was not finally recognized until 220 B.C. It produced only one Emperor of note, Tsin Shih Huang-ti (First Heavenly Emperor), whose name is famous for three exploits : the consolidation of the Empire by subdividing it into thirty-six provinces, the building of the Great Wall of China, and the burning of China's Classics.

The Han dynasty that came next is the best-known of these earlier lines of Emperors on account of its popularity with the Chinese, who style themselves to this day "Sons of Han." In its two branches, Western and Eastern Han (the removal of the capital from Sianfu in Shensi to Lohyang in Honan dates from A.D. 25) the dynasty maintained its hold on the Empire from 206 B.C. to A.D. 221. Its record is thus summed up by Père L. Richard :—[1]

> "Numerous public works were undertaken, prominent among which were bridges, aqueducts, roads and canals. The wealth and trade of the country developed. The Classics were restored and engraved on stone ; Buddhist literature was officially introduced from India, and intercourse opened with the Roman Empire. The competitive examinations for literary degrees (abolished September 2, 1905) originated under this dynasty, and a Penal Code was drawn up. Years of peace, during which the nation prospered, alternated with incursions by the Nomad Tartars. The modern Fukien, Kuangtung, Yunnan, Szechuan, and Liaotung were incorporated with the Chinese Empire. Chinese armies marched as far west as the Caspian Sea, and China occupied a foremost position among the nations of the East."

On the fall of the Han dynasty from internal dissensions the Empire was divided into three kingdoms, but in A.D. 265 these were consolidated under the Tsin dynasty. At this period the incursions of the Tartar tribes (Huns) from the north became more serious, until in A.D. 317 they established themselves permanently in North China and the dynasty removed the capital of the Empire to Nanking in Kiangsu. It now became known as the Eastern Tsin and retained the throne until A.D. 420.

For the next five centuries the history of the Chinese Empire is one of internal discord and rebellion, with constant struggles for possession or retention of the throne and with, for the most part, short-lived dynasties. One only assumes any prominence, the Tang dynasty, which ruled over China from A.D. 620 to 907. Under this dynasty the western boundaries of the Empire were extended and Korea became a province governed by Chinese officials. During the reign of the Emperor Taitsung (A D. 267–650) the Nestorians and Mohammedans entered China, and the Nestorian Tablet was erected at Sianfu by Imperial sanction (A.D. 781).

Five dynasties followed in fifty-three years and in A.D. 960 began the Sung dynasty with the capital at Kaifeng in Honan. The Northern Sung lasted until A.D. 1127, but early in its history the Kitan Tartars, who had long been challenging the Chinese Empire, proved formidable neighbours in the north.

In A.D. 1125 the Kin Tartars (N.E. Manchuria) defeated the Kitans and founded a kingdom, with its capital first at Liaoyang and then at Peking. Before these new invaders the Chinese retired south of the

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[1] L. Richard's *Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire.* Translated into English, revised and enlarged by M. Kennelly, S.J. 1908.

Yangtze, with Nanking as their capital, leaving the northern provinces and their Emperor in the hands of the Kins. The new Emperor invited the Mongols to fight his battles for him, and in A.D. 1234 the Kins were overthrown. The victorious Mongols then turned their attention to the Chinese, overran the country (A.D. 1275), and under the famous Kublai Khan established the Mongol dynasty of Yuen (A.D. 1280). During his reign Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller, who had previously entered China and remained there seventeen years, was received at the Peking Court.

In 1368 a successful revolution established once more a Chinese dynasty, the Ming (1368–1644), and the Mongols were driven from the country. During this period the boundaries of the Empire were extended to include Tongking on the south, but China was frequently hard pressed by the Mongols in the north and by the Japanese, who in 1554 captured several towns near the coast-line of Kiangsu, south of the Yangtze and of Chekiang. In 1618 the Manchus invaded Liaotung, and seven years later they made Mukden their capital. For more than twenty years their attacks on the Empire were driven off. But in 1644 a successful rebellion in China led to the capture of Peking, and the last Ming Emperor committed suicide. The Chinese generals who were in command of the operations against the Manchus, summoned the latter to aid them against the insurgents. The Manchus entered Peking and the rebellion was crushed, but the victors established themselves in China, and the late Manchu dynasty, known as the Tsing (Taching) dynasty, ascended the Dragon throne in A.D. 1644. One of the earliest acts of the new reigning house was to compel the Chinese to shave their heads in recognition of Tartar authority. What was in origin a badge of servitude became an object of national pride.

The rulers of the Manchu dynasty were ten in number :—

Shun Chi .	1644–1662
Kang Hsi .	1662–1723
Yung Cheng .	1723–1736
Kien Lung .	1736–1796
Kia King .	1796–1821
Tao Kuang .	1821–1850
Hsien Fung .	1850–1861
Tung Chi .	1861–1875
Kuang Hsu .	1875–1908
Hsuan Tung .	1908–1912 (abdicated)

Physical Characteristics

The Chinese.—"With regard to physical characteristics, the inhabitants of the eighteen provinces differ widely from one another, and the same may be said sometimes even of the inhabitants of the same province. There are, however, certain features which are common to the race. The stature is below the average, and seldom exceeds 5 feet 4 inches, except in the north. The head is normally brachycephalic or round horizontally, and the forehead low and narrow. The face is round, the mouth large, and the chin small and receding. The cheek-bones are prominent, the eyes almond-shaped, oblique upwards and outwards, and the hair coarse, lank and invariably black. The beard appears late in life and remains generally scanty. The eyebrows are straight and the iris of the eye is black. The nose is generally short, broad, and flat. The hands and feet are disproportionately small, and the body early inclines to obesity. The complexion varies from an almost pale yellow to a dark brown, without any red or ruddy tinge. Yellow, however, predominates, as with the Japanese, Manchu, and Mongolian races." (L. Richard's *Comprehensive Geography of the Chinese Empire.*)

Manchus.—The Manchus are descended from a Tartar tribe, belonging to the Tungus. They resemble the Northern Chinese in being of a slightly larger build and sturdier than the inhabitants of Central China, but their eyes lack the upward turn. The feet of the Manchu women are not bound, while their hair, in distinction to that of the Chinese, is worn twisted round a silver bangle placed crosswise on the top of the head.

Mongolians.—The Mongols are a sturdy, thick-set race, generally more powerfully built than the Chinese, vigorous and capable of enduring great physical hardships. They are born horsemen, but on foot they are both awkward and incapable of much sustained effort. In their personal habits they are excessively dirty, while they combine extraordinary gluttony with supreme laziness and general improvidence. The intellectual standard of the people is low, a fact attributed by most observers to the hold that Lamaism has on the country.

Tibetans.—The Tibetans belong to the Mongol family, resembling the Western Mongolians more than the Eastern, the nose and cheek-bones being prominent, the ears large, the forehead narrow. Their complexion is light brown with a tendency to ruddiness. The Tibetans of Lhasa are shorter than the Chinese. In other parts of the country the stature of the inhabitants is above the Chinese average.

Aboriginals or Quasi-Aboriginal Tribes.—Our knowledge of the aboriginal tribes of China is still imperfect, and much uncertainty prevails regarding their origin and degree of inter-relationship. The most familiar names are those of Lolo, Miaotze, Sifan, Liso, Moso, Hakka and Hoklo. With the exception of the last two the people in question dwell on the western borders of China, in various parts of Szechuan, Yunnan or Kueichou, or across the Tibetan frontier. One authority, excluding the Tibetans, with whom the Sifans are to be reckoned, considers that the three chief non-Chinese races of South-West China are the Lolo, Shan and Miaotze, and would place the Moso and Liso in the Lolo family. An attempt has also been made to give all these tribes a Mauryan origin with a Tibetan strain running through them. A connection between the Shans (Burma) and Chinese, however, is generally accepted.

The *Lolo*, divided into two classes, the "black-bones" (aristocrats and fighters) and the "white-bones" or tame Lolo, occupy a territory of some 11,000 square miles of mountain land in Southern Szechuan, in Yunnan, and Kueichou. Their skin is white and the hair brown. The Lolo are characterized by a sturdy independence of the Chinese, from whom they differ in speech, dress, customs, religion, and laws. Baber says of them :—"They are far taller than the Chinese . . . almost without exception remarkably straight-built with thin muscular limbs. . . . Their handsome oval faces, of a reddish brown among those most exposed to the weather, are furnished with large, level eyes, prominent but not exaggerated cheek-bones, an arched but rather broad nose, an ordinary mouth, somewhat thin-lipped, and a pointed and characteristic chin from which the beard has been plucked." The Mantze in Szechuan have long been distinct from the Lolo further south, but it is generally agreed that they are one and the same race, which perhaps at one time wielded wide sway in this part of the world.

The *Miaotze*, if we accept a distinction between them and the Lolo, may also be given an Indo-Chinese origin. They were probably the earliest of all the existing settlers in South-West China and are now met with in widely spread localities. From the colour of their dress they are generally grouped into three divisions, the White, Black and Embroidered Miao.

The origin of the *Moso* and *Liso* must also remain a matter of conjecture. Though the two races may be referred back to the same stock, it has been noted that the Liso language is rather closer to the Burmese than to the Moso (R. F. Johnston). Both peoples repudiate any connection with the Lolo. The authority above quoted adds :—"This attitude may be due to the fact that the Moso, once a warlike race, have settled down quietly under Chinese rule as peaceful tillers of the ground, while the Lolo have earned the reputation of being lawless freebooters." Both Moso and Liso are found widely scattered.

The *Hakkas* are to be found mainly in Kuangtung and Kuangsi, but are met with also in Kiangsi, Fukien and Chekiang, as well as in the islands of Formosa and Hainan. L. Richard says of them :—"The Hakkas are a cross between Chinese soldiers and Ikia (aborigines) women. . . . They came very likely from Fukien . . . are excellent cultivators, and being of strong build are also employed as coolies and carriers." Their language, which holds an intermediate position between Mandarin and Cantonese, is spoken by 4,000,000 people.

The *Hoklos* are the people of Fok (pronounced Hok), i.e. Fukien, from which province they migrated to Kuangtung a few centuries ago. They now number about three millions.

Ikia, signifying "barbarian," is a generic term among the Chinese for all the tribes of the south and south-west, but is also applied to certain tribes found in Kueichou and Kuangsi.

Population, Distribution of

From the statistics of population given on a previous page (p. 3) it will be seen that Shantung is the most densely populated province of the Empire, with 528 inhabitants to the square mile. Chekiang and Kiangsu follow in order of density, with 463 and 448 inhabitants to the square mile. Population is thus densest along the fertile valleys of the Yellow River and the Yangtze, and most scattered along the border provinces of Kansu, Szechuan, Yunnan, and Kuangsi, where geographical conditions as well as inter-tribal feuds have helped to thin the populace. Outside of China Proper large centres of population are rare. Yarkand and Kashgar may have more than 50,000 inhabitants each, and Urga in Mongolia 30,000; but the latter territory has only two and Chinese Turkestan only four people to the square mile. China, therefore, as a whole is far from being over-populated, and only in the most highly favoured districts does the density of population approximate that of some European countries.

The loss of life from abnormal causes in China in each decade must be far greater than in any other portion of the world, with the possible exception of India in former times. Apart from the congestion of population in the great centres, where with the characteristic indifference to sanitation and hygiene a favourable field is offered to and taken advantage of by numerous epidemics (plague, endemic in Yunnan, cholera, small-pox, etc., *passim*), China is particularly susceptible to recurring visitations in the form of floods and famine. Chinese chronicles are filled with the recital of national or local disasters. A famine in 1877–8 is said to have caused the death of 8,000,000 of the inhabitants of Honan, Shansi, Shantung and Chihli. In recent times one district or another has been able to record famine with attendant loss of life each year. More notable disasters have been as frequent as 1901, 1906 and 1910 (famines), and 1911 (floods). Action on the part of the Government could do much to prevent or minimize these visitations, but has never yet been taken. Again the frequent occurrence (almost chronic) of rioting and revolt has exercised its effect on the numbers of the people of China. The loss of life caused by the Taiping Rebellion (1850–64) is variously estimated from 10,000,000 to 20,000,000. The Mohammedan rebellions between 1861 and 1872 must have contributed largely to the depopulation of Kansu and Yunnan. Few riots are unaccompanied by the extermination of China's rank and file to the extent, it may be, only of hundreds or otherwise of thousands. In the Chihli (N.E.) riots of 1891 the Government claimed to have killed 15,000 rebels in one month.

Emigration

The following official estimate of Chinese living abroad has been compiled. The figures are probably too high (e.g. Japanese returns give the number of Chinese in Japan as 11,840, compared with the 17,700 of this table) :—

Formosa	2,258,650	Cuba	90,000	Canada	12,000
Java	1,825,700	Philippines	84,060	Korea	11,300
Siam	1,500,000	Macao	74,560	South Africa	5,000
East Indies	1,023,500	Peru	45,000	Mexico	3,000
Singapore	1,000,000	Siberia	37,000	Europe	1,760
Hongkong	314,390	Australia	35,000		
Annam	197,300	Honolulu	27,000	Total	8,867,420
U.S.A.	150,000	Brazil	20,000		
Burmah	134,600	Japan	17,700		

Language and Dialects

The language of the Republic is Chinese, but it is subdivided into so many dialects with widely differing pronunciations, often only intelligible locally, that the country can hardly be said to be possessed of a common tongue. As in other countries there is a marked distinction between the written and the spoken language. The former is divided into three varieties :—

1. The *Ancient* style of the Classics and early Annals of the Empire, which is a subject for the interpretation of scholars.

2. The *Literary* style (*Wenli*), used in books and in the essays written at public examinations of the old régime.

3. The *Official* style of public documents and business correspondence, of which the characters are the same throughout the Empire.

The one language that can claim to be in any way common to the Republic is known as *Mandarin*, which in its three varieties, Northern, Southern (Nanking) and Western, is spoken by two-thirds of the population of China.

The dialects that most resemble Mandarin are the *Cantonese*, with the allied *Hakka*, the *Ningpo*, *Shanghai*, *Wenchow*, *Amoy*, *Swatow* and *Foochow* dialects. These dialects, however, would not be understood by an ordinary Mandarin-speaking Chinese belonging to another province. Interpreters are by no means unknown in official Chinese conclaves in Peking.

The various tribes to which reference has already been made have their own dialects, and a different script.

Of the *Manchu* language L. Richard writes :—

"In Manchuria Chinese is the most widely spoken language of the country. The Manchus, when speaking among themselves, employ their own dialect, which is very different from the Chinese and Mongol languages. It is of Tungusic origin, sonorous and easily learned. It is composed of dissyllabic roots, the meaning of which is modified (especially in verbs) by agglutinative suffixes. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. The latest form has been borrowed, in the sixteenth century, from the Mongols. There are 6 to 8 vowels, 18 consonants and 10 diacritical marks. Like Chinese it is written in vertical columns, but from left to right."

Of the *Mongol* language the same authority says :—

"The most widely diffused type of the Mongol language, spoken throughout the country, belongs to the Ural-Altaic family, as the Turkish and Manchu dialects. It abounds in dissyllabic roots, and is rich in words and forms. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. It has 7 vowels, 17 consonants and 5 diphthongs. Gutturals and aspirates are largely used. The writing has undergone various transformations. Its latest form, which resembles knotted cords, dates from the thirteenth century. Mongol is written in vertical columns from top to bottom, but unlike Chinese, the lines proceed from left to right. The Mongol language has its conjugations and declinations. Sentences consist of a number of participial clauses with the principal verb at the end, and this gives them at times an indefinite length. In the spoken language the letter r is frequent, but the consonant f is non-existent."

CHAPTER VII

PRODUCTS[1]

IN the list of native goods that pass through the Maritime Customs for export are included 300 different specifications. Of these, half belong to different products of the country. Hongkong for Customs purposes is reckoned as a foreign port. It serves, however, as a port of redistribution as well for the whole of China, and undoubtedly a certain proportion of the goods that find their way to this mart from Chinese ports are intended for Chinese consumption. But as in no case Hongkong is the sole destination of export, we are left with the fact that China can claim close upon 100 products or manufactures that, with the exception of sugar-candy, bed-quilts and safflower, are produced in sufficient quantities to allow severally of an annual consumption outside the place of origin of over £3000 or £4000.

Apart from salt (see Salt Gabelle, *infra*), coal, rice, opium and "provisions and vegetables (not including eggs)," which are dealt in in quantities far exceeding those recorded by the Customs, the chief products of China, the value of whose export is over a million sterling each, are (with values of export *abroad* in 1913[2] and 1916 in brackets) :—

Silk (£15,840,466 : £18,416,008).
Beans and Products (£7,289,219 : £7,291,906).
Tea (£5,125,866 : £7,225,934).
Skins and Furs (£3,591,528 : £4,547,087).
Cotton (£2,505,272 : £2,924,075).
Sesamum Seed (£1,868,716 : £1,160,825).
Tin (£1,654,116 : £1,434,594).
Cereals (£1,437,002).
Medicines and Allied Products (£1,344,469 : £1,272,715).[3]
Ground Nuts and Oil (£1,136,798 : £1,452,124).
Animals, Living (£1,016,718).
Wool (£1,005,400 : £2,022,917).
Antimony (1916 : £2,190,806).
Copper (1916 : £1,504,030).

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[1] For further statistical details regarding the export of Chinese products *vide* the chapter on Trade Statistics, p. 176 *et seq.*

[2] This year is chosen in view of the disturbing effect of the War on China's trade in 1914 and 1915.

[3] In the allied products are included Alum, Aniseed Star, Cassia Lignea, China-root, Galangal, Liquorice, Musk, Nutgalls, Oils Essential (Aniseed,

A Production Map of China, compiled by Mr. Norman Shaw, of the Dairen Customs, was included in the 1913 edition of the Year Book.

Cassia-leaf, etc.), and Rhubarb. Alum is found in Hunan, Anhui, Kansu, Kuangtung, Fukien and Chekiang. It is used in bleaching and dyeing, in purifying water, in sizing paper, in cement for masonry, in silver and pewter work, and as a medicine. Cassia Lignea is the bark of the *Cinnamomum cassia*, stripped off the branches and allowed to lie for a day, during which time it undergoes a kind of fermentation: it is used to flavour medicine and for making incense. China-root is found growing, like a fungus, from the roots of fir trees or in the ground apart from the trees, and appears to be caused by a disease of the roots. Galangal is the root of the *Alpinia galanga*. Liquorice, a drug of great importance in Chinese pharmacy; the dried roots of *Glycyrrhiza glabra* and *Gl. echinata*, grown in Shansi, Kansu and Szechuan. Musk is the dried secretion of the preputial follicles of a species of antelope, found in Tibet, Annam and Central India; it is used as a medicine, as a perfume and to scent Chinese ink. The chief musk market in the world is at Tachienlu, West Szechuan, the average export of musk from Chungking, the nearest Customs port, being 3000 lb. yearly. Fully half this amount passes through Tachienlu, where the best quality of musk is obtained. A United States Consular Report says: Most of the musk is sent to France, where it is employed in the manufacture of perfumery. It is not only used for the perfume that bears this name, but is an essential ingredient in all the better classes of perfumery. A large firm in Paris has established a representative at Tachienlu for the sole purpose of buying musk. It is very difficult to obtain pure musk, and every pod has to be carefully examined. Musk has certain radioactive properties that cause the odour of the perfume to be carried through the air in a way that would otherwise be impossible. The radioactive properties of the musk affect most peculiarly the natives who carry it. If it is held close to the body for any length of time, it produces sores that are probably similar in character to those caused by pure radium. The musk deer are becoming more and more scarce each year, and at the present rate of destruction will eventually become extinct. The animal is much smaller than is generally supposed. It is seldom more than 3 feet long and 22 or 23 inches tall. Nutgalls are the oblong, hollow and brittle excrescences produced on the Poison Oak (*Sumach Rhus semi-reata*) by a small insect which deposits its eggs in the tender shoots. The same tree is used in the manufacture of Chinese varnish. Nutgalls are used chiefly as a dye, but also as a medicine. The European war has given considerable impetus to the nutgall and indigo industries in view of the check administered to the aniline dye trade, which was mainly in German hands. Old processes, it is reported, are being revived by the Chinese. Rhubarb is the root of the *Rheum officinale* and *Rheum palmatum*, which grows in Chihli, Shensi, Kansu, Hupeh, Szechuan and Tibet: the roots are dug up, when from six to seven years old, in the spring, with the tree in the bud, and again after the seed has ripened; they are then peeled, cut into pieces, bored through the middle, placed on strings and hung up to dry. Safflower, the dried red flowers of the *Carthamus tinctorius*, used as a dye and a tonic, also an ingredient in the manufacture of rouge.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS

(*Shown in Production Map, 1913 edition*)

ARTICLE.	WHERE FROM.
ANIMAL PRODUCTS.	
Furs and Skins of Wild Beasts.	Manchuria, Mongolia, the forests of Nanshan region, West Szechuan, North Szechuan, Kansu, and Shensi.
Skins, Lamb Wool, Sheep's	Mongolia and Tibet chiefly.
Skins, Goat	Mongolia, Chihli, Shansi (the best), Szechuan, Kueichow and the Yangtze Valley.
Hides, Cow and Buffalo Horns, Cow and Buffalo Leather Tallow	Most parts.
Bristles	Principally Chihli, Honan, Hupeh, and Szechuan, also the Liang Kuang.
Egg Albumen	Large Yangtze ports.
Eggs Feathers	The Yangtze Valley and the Kuangtung Delta.
CEREALS. (*Vide infra.*)	
FIBRES.	
Abutilon	Hupeh.
Hemp	Almost all parts, but chiefly Hukuang and Liang Kuang provinces.
Jute	Chihli.
CEREALS—*cont.*	
Ramie	Szechuan, Kiangsi, and Hupeh. (In Kuangtung the local product is made into Grasscloth.)
METALS.	
Antimony	Almost all Hunan, also Kuangsi and Yunnan.
Iron	For foreign export, practically all from Tayeh, Hupeh, but it is found in many provinces.
Lead	Chiefly Hunan, also North Yunnan.
Quicksilver	Great deposits right across Kueichow.
Tin	South Yunnan
Zinc	Hunan.
SEEDS. *Oil-bearing.*	
Soya Beans	Manchuria, Honan, Chihli, Shantung, and Central Yangtze.
Ground-nuts	All parts, except in high regions; Shantung (best), mostly Kuangtung.
Rape	Chiefly Central Manchuria, Anhui, Kiangsu, Chekiang, and Szechuan.
Sesamum	Manchuria, Honan, and developing in Shantung.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS—*contd.*

ARTICLE.	WHERE FROM.	ARTICLE.	WHERE FROM.
Sundry :—		TIMBER.	
Castor Oil	Manchuria, Chihli, etc.	Timber (including Bamboos).	East and North Manchuria, the Nanshan Range (North Chekiang, South Anhui, Fukien, South Hunan, North Kuangtung, South Kiangsi, South Kueichow, and Kuangsi.)
Mustard	Chiefly Mongolia and Yunnan.		
Perilla	Manchuria.		
Other Kinds.			
Apricot	Chihli and Shantung.		
Cotton	Honan, Hupeh, Kiangsu, and Chekiang.	SUNDRIES.	
		Aniseed	Kuangsi.
Melon	Manchuria, Hupeh, and the Yangtze Valley.	China-root	Hupeh and Liang Kuang.
		Chinaware	Kiangsi and Kuangsi.
		Coal	Manchuria, Chihli, Shansi, Honan, and Shantung.
SILK.			
White	Chekiang, Kiangsu, and Kuangtung.	Cotton	Chihli, Honan, Shantung, Hupeh, and Chekiang.
Yellow	Shantung and Szechuan		
Wild	South Manchuria, Shantung, and Kueichow.	Fungus	Chungking, Hupeh, and Kuangsi.
		Lily Flowers	Hupeh and Kiangsi.
		Musk	West Szechuan.
TEA.		Nutgalls	Szechuan, Kueichow, Hupeh, and Kuangsi.
Black	Hupeh, North Kiangsi, Hunan, Fukien, and Kuangtung.	Sugar	Liang Kuang.
		Tobacco	Manchuria, Kansu, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Fukien, and Liang Kuang.
Green	Kiangsi, South Anhui, Chekiang, Fukien, and Kuangtung.		

CEREALS.—The export abroad of Cereals is not permitted. Rice does not grow much north of 32nd parallel, except in Kiangsu, but it is the staple food south of this. Wheat, Barley, and Millet grow in the drier north, but Wheat also is grown in the south as a secondary crop to Rice. Kaoliang is the staple food in Manchuria, and Maize in North Yunnan and parts of the neighbouring provinces. Oats are found in Mongolia, Kansu, and Kueichow; Rye, only in Kansu.

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS, ARRANGED ACCORDING TO EACH PROVINCE

Province.	Article.	Port of Export.	Remarks.
HEILUNGKIANG	Skins (Furs), Fox, Sable, Marmot, etc.	Manchouli (Manchuria).	
KIRIN	Soya Beans	Harbin.	
		Suifenho	Chinese Eastern Railway to Vladivostok.
	Cereals (chiefly Wheat), Bran, and Flour	Sansing	Down the Sungari River.
		Suifenho	Chinese Eastern Railway.
		Harbin	Chinese Eastern Railway and to the South.
	Timber	Antung	From the Upper Yalu River.
		Harbin.	
	Timber and Firewood	Suifenho.	
MONGOLIA, EAST	Hides, Live Stock, and Meat.	Harbin.	
MONGOLIA	Hides	Tientsin and Chinwangtao	
	Skins (Furs), Dog, Lamb, etc.	Tientsin.	
FENGTIEN	Wild Silk and Beans and Bean Products.	Antung, Dairen and Newchwang.	
	Cereals (Maize, Millet, and Wheat), Sesamum and Sundry Seeds (Castor Oil, Pearl Barley, Perilla, etc.), and Salt.	Dairen and Newchwang.	
	Coal	Dairen and Newchwang.	From the Fushun, Yentai, and Pensihu Mines.
	Timber	Antung	From the Lower Yalu River.
KANSU	Bristles, Hides, and Skins.	Tientsin, Kiaochou and Hankow.	
SHENSI	Goat Skins	Tientsin.	
SHANSI	Coal	Tientsin.	
HONAN	Soya Beans	Kiaochou and Hankow.	
	Coal	Tientsin.	
	Sesamum Seed	Hankow.	

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS—*contd.*

PROVINCE.	ARTICLE.	PORT OF EXPORT.	REMARKS.
CHIHLI	Apricot and Melon Seeds, Bristles, Dates, Jute, and Straw Braid.	Tientsin.	
	Cotton	Tientsin	From South-west Chihli.
	Ground-nuts	Tientsin	From South-east Chihli.
	Coal	Tientsin and Chinwangtao	From the Kaiping Mines.
SHANTUNG	Cotton	Tientsin	From North-west Shantung.
	Pongees and Wild Silk	Chefoo.	
	Coal	Kiaochou	From Poshan and Weihsien.
	Glassware, Straw Braid, Wheat, and White and Yellow Silk.	Kiaochou.	
	Bean Oil, Beancake, Bristles, Dates, Ground-nut Oil, Ground-nuts, and Walnuts.	Chefoo and Kiaochou.	
	Vermicelli	Chefoo	Made from Green Beans.
SZECHUAN	Bristles, Feathers, Fungus, Goat Skins, Grasscloth, Hemp, Hides, Ramie, and Turmeric.	Chungking	All products of the "Red Basin."
	Varnish, Vegetable Tallow, and Yellow Silk.	Chungking.	
	Medicines	Chungking	From the Western Mountains mostly.
	Rhubarb	Chungking	From North-west Szechuan.
	White Wax	Chungking	From Kiating.
	Salt.		
KUEICHOW	Goat Skins and Nutgalls	Chungking	From North Kueichow.
	Wild Silk	Chungking.	
	Timber	Wuchow	From South Kueichow border.
HUPEH, WEST	Cotton, Fungus, Hemp, Nutgalls, Varnish, and Vegetable Tallow.	Ichang and Shasi.	

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS—*contd.*

PROVINCE.	ARTICLE.	PORT OF EXPORT.	REMARKS.
HUPEH	Arsenic, Black and Green Tea, Bristles, China-root, Coal, Cotton, Fungus, Goat Skins, Gypsum, Hides, Iron, Lily Flowers, Medicines, Musk, Nutgalls, Tea Oil, Tobacco, Varnish, Wheat, White Wax, Wood, Wood Oil, and Yellow and White Silk.	Hankow.	
HUNAN	Tea, Fire-crackers, Grass-cloth, Hemp, Lily Flowers, Ramie, Rice, & Wheat. Metals: Antimony, Arsenic, Lead, Manganese, Realgar, and Zinc.	Changsha and Yochow.	
ANHUI	Feathers, Black & Green Tea, Hides, Rape Seed, Rice, Silk, and Wheat.	Wuhu.	Keemun Teas.
KIANGSI	Coal and Coke	Changsha	From Pingsiang.
	Beans, Camphor, Chinaware, Cotton, Fans, Grasscloth, Ground-nuts, Indigo, Melon Seeds, Paper, Ramie, Rice, Sesamum Seed, Tea, Timber, Tobacco, and Vegetable Tallow.	Kiukiang.	Tea (both Black and Green).
KIANGSU	Broad Beans and Paper Fans.	Nanking.	
	Goat Skins, Hides, and Melon and Sesamum Seed.	Nanking and Chinkiang.	
	Eggs, Lily Flowers, and Soya Beans.	Chinkiang.	
	Ground-nuts	Chinkiang and Shanghai.	
	Cotton, Eggs, Straw Braid, and Wheat.	Shanghai.	
	Silk	Shanghai and Soochow.	
	Green Tea and Rape Seed.	Soochow.	
	Salt.		

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS—*contd.*

PROVINCE.	ARTICLE.	PORT OF EXPORT.	REMARKS.
CHEKIANG .	Alum, Fish and Fishery Products, Mats, Matting, Medicines, and Rush Hats.	Ningpo.	
	Cabbages, Hams, Silk, and Tobacco.	Hangchow.	
	Cotton, Green Tea, and Paper and Paper Products.	Hangchow and Ningpo.	
	Black and Green Tea, Fish, Oranges, Paper, Timber, and Tobacco.	Wenchow.	
FUKIEN . .	Bamboos, Camphor, Tea Oil, and Timber.	Santuao and Foochow.	
	Paper and Black and Green Tea.	All ports.	
	Olives and Oranges .	Foochow.	
	Lung-ngans . . .	Foochow and Amoy.	
	Chinaware, Sugar, and Tobacco.	Amoy.	
KUANGTUNG .	Cassia and Silk . .	Canton and Lappa.	
	Palm-leaf Fans . .	Lappa and Kongmoon.	
	Bamboos, Bambooware, and Oranges.	All ports.	
	Fish and Fishery Products.	Kowloon, Lappa, and Swatow.	
	Grasscloth . . .	Swatow chiefly	
	Ground-nut Oil and Ground-nuts.	Swatow, Lappa, and Pakhoi.	
	Indigo . . .	Swatow and Pakhoi.	
	Eggs, Fire-crackers, Fruits, Paper, and Tobacco.	Most ports.	
	Matting, Mats, and Preserves.	Canton.	
	Sugar	All ports, except Kongmoon.	
	Tea	All ports, except Pakhoi.	
Hainan .	Betel-nuts, Galangal, and Pigs.	Kiungchow.	

LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL CHINESE PRODUCTS—*contd.*

Province.	Article.	Port of Export.	Remarks.
KUANGSI	Ground-nuts, Paper, Sugar, and Tobacco.	All ports.	
	Aniseed and Hides	Nanning and Wuchow.	
	Mouse-deer Skins	Nanning.	
	Hemp, Indigo, Melon Seeds, Nutgalls, Silk, Tea Oil, Timber, and Wood Oil.	Wuchow.	
YUNNAN	Cunao and Tin	Mengtze.	
	Black Tea	Mengtze and Szemao.	
	Nankeens and Tobacco	Szemao.	
	Orpiment, Walnuts, and Yellow Silk.	Tengyueh.	

PASTORAL

The Chinese are agriculturists; pastoral pursuits rank as of entirely secondary importance. Pasture-lands are for the most part those that cannot be put to any other use, such as the slopes of mountains. An exception to this rule is to be found in Central China, where the Yellow River with its floods renders a large tract of land unfit for cultivation. This region has become a pasture ground for cattle, with a rapidly increasing market in Shantung province. Shantung cattle, which are derived from Central China, were introduced into foreign markets by the Russian Government, who exported them, via Chefoo, to Port Arthur and Dairen. The trade was considerably expanded under the German occupation of Kiaochou, and in 1913 the Leased Territory supplied 37 per cent of China's export of cattle, and 49 per cent of the export of fresh meat, the chief destination being Siberia. It was estimated in 1918 that there were 600,000 head of cattle in Shantung. The largest cattle market is at Tsinan, the daily sales covering from 300 or 400 to 1,000 head. The cattle are for the most part large framed, the ox weighing from 7 to 11½ cwt.; they have a comparatively thin hide. The International Export Co. (British) has established a slaughtering and refrigerating plant at Nanking in connection with the Shantung cattle trade. Cattle-breeding is now receiving the attention of the Chinese Government. Experimental stations for cattle-breeding have been established by the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce: (1) at Shihmenshan, in the valley of the Shaochi Ho, district of Fenyang, Anhui; and (2) near Kalgan. The export of animals is gradually increasing, and in 1913 amounted to £1,016,708. Cattle (£464,981) and pigs (£410,917) accounted for the bulk of this export. Formerly the bulk of the cattle trade was in South China, but the prevalence of disease interfered with the export, which was mainly to the Philippines. The export of Mongolian cattle to Russian territory increased largely as a result of the European war. The trade in skins, however, is more considerable and centres mainly in Hankow, cow and buffalo hides (36 per cent), and Tientsin (27 per cent), with Wuchow (Kuangsi) and Kiaochou a long way behind, the chief destinations being France, Germany, Italy and Great Britain. Hankow and Chungking share with Tientsin the major part of the export of goat skins (to the United States), while the latter port is concerned largely with the trade in lamb skins, dressed skins of all kinds, kid, lamb and sheep clothing, the furs of the fox, marmot and sable (Hankow claiming the bulk of the trade in raccoon and weasel skins), and the wool of camels, goats and sheep—in these industries acting as the main outlet for Mongolian and Manchurian products. Pigs' bristles form an allied trade, which thrives in Manchuria, Chihli, Central and Western China, and in a lesser degree in the south, the chief centres being Tientsin, Chungking and Hankow, and the main destinations France, Great Britain and the United States.

Of the part played by Tientsin in these latter industries a Customs Commissioner says :—

> "The hard water at Tientsin gives very unsatisfactory results (in regard to tanning and cleaning), especially in the case of the more delicate skins. Therefore skins in their crude condition and covered by the original pass are carried to the two great tanning centres, Kalgan for goat skins, and Kiaocheng, near Taiyuanfu, for lamb skins. Goat skins after being collected and roughly packed are also conveyed to Kalgan, where they are cleaned, sorted, sewn together into rugs and thus brought down to Tientsin. It may be noted that the sewing up of skins and furs into robes and carosses is effected in the interior, and forms an industry amounting to about £400,000 a year. Wool is brought down roughly packed to Paotowchen, Kalgan and other repacking centres, where it is sorted out, cleaned and properly packed before proceeding to Tientsin. The same happens in the case of bristles, which are brought down, mainly from Manchuria, in their crude state to Fengjunhsien, near Tongshan, to be cleaned, sorted, repacked and sent to Tientsin."

The importation of tanning materials and the chemicals employed in the industry has led to an increase in the number of tanneries in China.

In China's fur trade appear the following :—Tiger, leopard, sea leopard, wolf, badger, deer, wild cat, squirrel, grey squirrel, ermine, sable, sloth, land otter, sea otter, white fox, red fox, black fox, yellow fox, spotted fox, common fox, marten, marmot, beaver, raccoon, weasel.

FORESTS

Wholesale destruction has denuded a large part of China of its forests, and the country has now to import timber to satisfy its own needs, nearly as much wood entering China from abroad until 1912 as was obtained within its borders for purposes of local trade through the Customs. Foochow poles (fir and pine) are the chief feature of the industry. The forests are owned by private individuals, and timber is felled all the year round, while replanting is only done spasmodically. In this respect Fukien province resembles the rest of China. The main supply of timber has hitherto come from twenty-three districts in the prefectures of Yenping, Kienning, Shaowu, and Tingchou. The poles, using various streams, collect at Nantai, where in the aggregate they reach an annual value of £1,000,000. Foochow (32 per cent), Hankow (30 per cent) and Antung, the port of export for Manchurian timber brought from the Yalu (16 per cent), supply most of the timber passing through the Customs. The value of the timber exported from Antung in 1916 was £270,307. The timber trade of Wuchow (Kuangsi), mainly in junks, is, however, estimated at £250,000. Owing to the fact that the Chinese unit of measurement is a *lien*, a length of 8 Chinese feet (9 ft. 4⅜ in.) regardless of diameter, no exact statement of the quantity of timber moved can be given.

Afforestation.—Forestry is now receiving the attention of the Chinese Government, and a Chinese Forest Service was created in January, 1916, under a Department of Forestry in the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce. A number of agricultural experimental stations have been established. Two of these deal with forestry, at Changchinghsien, Shantung, and Purple Mountain, Nanking. The latter is run as a school of forestry in connexion with Nanking University. Examples of afforestation had previously been set the Chinese in the Hongkong leased territory, at Weihaiwei, in the German territory of Kiaochou, and by the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company at Tongshan, Chihli. The hill men or Hakkas of Kuangtung province have long been known for their practice of forming plantations, mostly of pine trees, on the hills round their villages. At the initiative of the Ministry of Communications afforestation is now being carried out along the Peking-Hankow Railway and the Tientsin-Pukow line. Similar steps have been taken by the South Manchurian Railway in south-eastern Manchuria. In Anhui Mr. P. C. King, the Chief Forester, has planted, as an object lesson, 45,000 trees on the hills west of Anking and established a nursery with 574,000 seedlings. A Forestry Department has been added to the Provincial Agricultural School.

AGRICULTURAL

The Chinese Government is taking practical steps to promote the agricultural interests of the country. Under the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce schools of agriculture have been established, experimental stations started, and regulations dealing with the tea, cotton, silk and sugar industries issued. Among the experimental stations, in addition to those already mentioned, are three for cotton growing at Chengtinghsien, Chihli, Nantungchou, Kiangsu, and Tunghaingchou, Hupeh; one for sugar in Kiangsi and one for general farming at Laianhsien, Anking. Tea bureaux have been established at Hankow, Shanghai and Foochow, and experts are sent to advise planters on their own land. This part of the Ministry's work is centred in the Peking Agricultural Experiment Station.

Rice.—Rice is the staple food of the Chinese. The earliest mention of rice cultivation is connected with China, where about 2800 B.C. the Emperor Chin-Hung established a ceremony in which the sowing of five kinds of grain, one being rice, was the chief observance. The plant is indigenous to China and India. Probably the oldest actual samples of rice are those found by Sir Aurel Stein at Kara-dong (*Ancient Khotan*), which are supposed to have been engulfed by sand towards the end of the eighth century. To-day rice is grown in China in all but three provinces, Shensi, Shansi and Chihli. Manchuria grows its rice on dry land. The largest producing centres are Anhui, Hunan, Kiangsu, and Kuangtung, the chief ports of shipment being Wuhu, Shanghai and Changsha. Tribute rice was sent to Peking under the Manchu dynasty from Anhui, Chekiang, Kiangsu and Shantung, about 100,000 tons going by the ships of the China Merchants Steamship Company and about 20,000 tons by the Grand Canal. Honan, Hunan, Hupeh and Kiangsi commuted their tribute in grain for a monetary payment. An official estimate puts the annual production of rice in China at 3¾ million tons.

Opium.—Vide Chap. XXVIII.

Silk.—The silk industry of China is reputed to be 4000 or more years old. For 2000 years the country has been noted for its silk. The Chinese are supposed to have guarded their secret until A.D. 419, when a princess who married the chief of Khotan succeeded, at the risk of her life, in carrying away with her seed of the mulberry plant and eggs of the silkworm. In this way originated the silk industry of Central Asia, which in turn supplied Europe with its silk trade and industry. In the sand-buried ruins of Dandan-Uiliq Stein (*Ancient Khotan*) found a painted wooden tablet which, in his opinion, depicted the story of the princess. After having supplied the West with all its silk products, China fifty years ago was still responsible for half the silk trade. It has now to yield pride of place to Japan. The division of the world's raw silk trade during recent years has been as follows :—

Countries.	Percentages.					
	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914	1915.	1916.
China	31·2	32·5	31.1	25·9	32·4	27·7
Japan	38·1	39·7	44·3	44·5	48·7	51·9
Western Europe . .	17·6	18·6	15·5	22·2	14	15·8
Levant and Central Asia .	12	8·6	8·4	7·1	4·4	4

At one time Italy alone contributed a quarter of the world's trade in silk, but European crops have been stationary for the last twenty years. Roughly speaking, 68 per cent of China's silk and silk products come from the northern half of the country (including the Yangtze Valley provinces and Chekiang) and 32 per cent from the south. The specifications used for export purposes are :—

	Percentage of total value.	Chief ports of original export, 1917.
1. Silk, raw, white	17	Hangchow, 26 % ; Canton, 22 %
2. ,, ,, ,, (steam filature)	34	Canton, 56 % ; Shanghai, 40 %
3. Silk, raw, yellow	8	Chungking, 36 % ; Hankow, 36 %
4. ,, ,, wild	8	Manchuria, 61 % ; Shantung, 31 %
5. ,, cocoons	3	Shanghai, 12 % ; Manchuria, 78 %
6. ,, waste	5	Canton, 38 % ; Shanghai, 29 %
7. ,, cocoons, refuse	·8	Chungking, 41 % ; Hankow, 30 %
8. ,, piece goods	15	Canton, 34 % ; Shanghai, 33 %
9. Shantung pongees[1]	5	Chefoo, 66 % ; Kiaochow, 12 %

Large steam filatures are now found at Canton, Shanghai (10), Hangchow, Soochow, Hankow, Chefoo, Samshui and Chinkiang. With the exception of the products of such mills the silk industry in China is in the hands of the peasantry. As in the case of all other Chinese products, lack of scientific cultivation and preparation handicaps the industry. Wusieh, in Kiangsu (about half-way between Shanghai and Nanking on the railway), enjoys the reputation of producing the finest white silk in the world ; Shaohsing, in Chekiang, is another favoured spot ; the rest of the white silk (the tsatlee of the European market) comes from the Yangtze Valley and from Kuangtung. The chief silk district in the Kuangtung province is the district of Shun Tak, 30 miles from Canton. Within an area of 250 square miles there are 180 filatures, each employing from 300 to 500 girls. From six to eight crops a year (between May and November) are produced in this district, the best cocoons coming from Yung Kee. Raw yellow silk is produced in Szechuan, Shantung and Yunnan, the chief places of export through the Customs being Kiaochou, Chungking, Hankow and Tengyueh. Wild silk, the product of a silkworm fed upon oak leaves, comes mainly from Manchuria and Shantung. It is coarse in comparison with white and yellow silks and is manufactured into the tussahs of commerce. Pongees are also produced from silkworms fed on oak leaves. Wild silk has recently become more popular owing to the adoption of a new process of bleaching which allows the material subsequently to be dyed in the most delicate shades of colour. Wild silk is also considered the best material for aeroplane wings. Waste silk comprises a variety of by-products of the industry, obtained mostly from rejected cocoons. Silk piece goods are handwoven by peasant weavers, mainly in the district where the silk is produced. Hence the numerous varieties, each weaver adopting one particular kind of silk. Kiangsu and Chekiang are the chief provinces for the better kind of piece goods, where between 200 and 300 kinds are made, with Soochow, Wusieh and Nanking, in Kiangsu, Shaohsing and Hangchow, in Chekiang, as the principal centres.

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[1] Manufactured from cocoons of the Manchurian silkworm.

Education in sericulture has been given in China at silk-producing centres for the last twenty years or more, but always on an inadequate scale. More recently an attempt has been made to impart instruction on scientific lines, and under foreign stimulus pressure is being brought to bear on the Chinese Government to introduce the methods that have led to the marked success of the Japanese industry. The Foreign Silk Association of Shanghai is working to this end; while the Silk Association of America has dispatched representatives to China with a view to bringing home to the silk producer the shortcomings of Chinese silk and Chinese methods of reeling. In China the selection of eggs is left to the farmers, who lack technical knowledge, whereas in Japan, in Italy, and in France this work is done by Government experts. It is estimated that nearly 75 per cent of the Chinese silkworms hatched die before they reach the spinning stage, with the result that while an ounce of good eggs elsewhere will produce from 110 to 133 pounds of cocoons, an ounce of seed eggs in China produces from 15 to 25 pounds. The University of Nanking includes in its courses one on silkworm culture, and in co-operation with the International Committee for the Improvement of Sericulture in China is undertaking comprehensive experiments in mulberry culture. Its collection of silkworm eggs from all the silk-producing districts of China comprised 170 varieties.

The value of the export of silk from China during the five years 1913–17 was as follows:—

1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
104,874,814	79,561,667	100,800,719	111,016,440	106,173,997
£	£	£	£	£
15,840,466	10,856,852	13,072,593	18,416,008	22,921,417

Beans and Beancake.—The phenomenal rise in China's trade in the soya bean has been the chief commercial feature of recent years. Beans and beancake have always been the principal exports from Newchwang, but the trade remained entirely domestic until about 1890, when a few shipments were made to Japan. The traffic quickly increased in volume, and between 1900 and 1907 the annual value of the beans exported abroad was in the neighbourhood of £600,000. In the spring of 1908 a trial consignment of Manchurian beans was sent to England by a Japanese firm; orders immediately followed and the export of beans from China rose in value that year to £1,180,000. In 1909, owing to the failure of the linseed crop in the Argentine and a small cotton seed crop in Egypt, the foreign export was £4,260,000, with an export of beancake valued at £2,500,000, while the total production amounted in value to £9,000,000. An official estimate places the annual yield of beans for the whole of China at 9,000,000 tons.

Exports during recent years have been as follows:—

	Beans.		*Beancake.*		*Bean Oil.*	
	Tons.	£	Tons.	£	Tons.	£
1911.	657,044	3,573,325	618,962	2,878,377	42,473	783,992
1912.	650,844	3,568,573	485,891	2,693,534	31,291	603,027
1913.	614,640	3,518,798	703,478	3,770,420	29,274	563,689
1914.	664,114	3,174,819	632,610	2,965,803	35,418	663,309
1915.	698,793	2,604,774	690,109	2,685,332	60,555	970,213
1916.	523,362	2,916,430	692,633	4,333,383	93,193	1,962,950
1917.	595,705	4,231,487	923,377	5,129,022	112,571	3,928,278

Some particulars of the soya bean (*Glycine hispida* or *Dolichos soja*), taken from a monograph of the Maritime Customs, may be given here.[1]

The soya bean is an annual leguminous plant with stout stems which are nearly erect but have a tendency to climb. The haulms are covered with hairs—which in some varieties are rusty-looking, in others light green—and they bear trifoliate leaves which vary from the darkest to a light shade of green and inconspicuous pale lilac or violet flowers. The plant averages 2 to 3 feet in height, though under the most favourable conditions it may even reach 4 feet and over, and bears pods about 2 inches in length. The number of these borne on each plant depends largely upon climatic conditions ; thus in 1908, in the Tiehling district, each plant was reckoned to carry 35–80 ; in 1909, 40–76 ; and in 1910, 42–105.

Ten varieties of soya bean are recognized for commercial purposes, while botanical distinctions might call for any number of sub-species from 22 to 50. The varieties are :—

(*a*) Yellow Bean.
  1. *Pai-mei*, or white eyebrow, from the whiteness of the hilum or scar on the saddle marking the point of attachment to the pod.
  2. *Chin-yüan*, or round golden bean.
  3. *Hei-ch'i*, or black navel, from the dark brown hilum.

(*b*) Green Bean (*Ch'ing-tou*).
  4. With green epidermis and yellow interior.
  5. Green inside and out.

(*c*) Black Bean (*Wu-tou*).
  6. *Ta wu tou*, or large black, having black epidermis and green interior.
  7. Small black with yellow inside.
  8. *Pien wu tou*, or flat black with yellow inside.

(*d*) 9. Brown Bean.
(*e*) 10. Mottled Bean.

The last two are grown in Korea, Japan and the Yangtze Valley, but do not appear in Manchuria. The Yellow Bean is the commonest and is found generally throughout Manchuria, the finest crops being raised in the upland country beyond Mukden. The bean has been grown successfully up to the 47th degree of latitude. The black variety grows in the neighbourhood of Liaoyang, and generally south of Mukden ; the

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[1] *The Soya Bean of Manchuria*, published by order of the Inspector-General of Customs. Special Series, No. 31. 1911.

"white eyebrow" west of Kuanchengtze; and the Green Bean along the coast from the Liaotung Peninsula and in the Yalu basin.

The uses to which the soya bean is put in the Far East are thus enumerated (*op. cit.*):—

1. As bean sauce, or soy.
2. As Chinese paste (*chiang*): cheaper than soy.
3. As beancurd and kindred substances.
4. The beans are also consumed in the form of flour, as a table vegetable and in soups. In Japan they are used for making confectionery.
5. Bean refuse is used as a fertilizer and for fattening pigs.
6. Bean oil is used as an illuminant, a lubricant, and in cooking as a substitute for lard. In South China it is also used for the making of waterproof cloth, paper umbrellas and lanterns, and the oil is also mixed with lacquer for manufacturing varnish and printing ink.
7. Beancake is used as fodder for animals and as a fertilizer. The following chemical analysis of beancake is given (*op. cit.*, p. 9):—(percentages), Water, 17·71; Oil, 9·60; Albuminoids, 42·16; Carbo-hydrates, 19·43; Fibre, 6·54; Ash, 4·56.

In Europe the beans appear as foodstuff in margarine and mixed with flour and meal. They have even been employed as a substitute for coffee beans, while in Japan a "not very palatable" milk is made from them. Bean oil is used largely for soap and in the manufacture of toilet powders, paint oils, lubrication and lighting oils, as well as of various edible goods. The bean contains about 18 per cent of oil. By the hydraulic-press method from 11 to 12 per cent of oil is extracted, while by the chemical process (using benzine) 17 per cent is obtained.

Japan takes eighteen-nineteenths of the beancake exported from China. In 1909 518,000 tons of beans were shipped from China to Europe, and of this quantity over 400,000 tons were for English consumption. Official returns give Russia (96,981), China (174,415) and Japan (149,958) as the countries of origin of the 421,531 tons of soya beans imported into Great Britain in 1910; but it may be presumed that the reference is to Vladivostok and Dairen as the Russian and Japanese port of shipment respectively. Imports for 1911 and 1912 amounted to 222,157 and 188,760 tons. The values of the imports for the three years 1910–12 being £3,047,048, £1,648,195, and £1,567,960. The price of beans in London rose from £4 15s. per ton to £5 17s. 6d. in 1908, £6 15s. in 1909, and £8 5s. in 1910; the average prices for 1911 and 1912 were £7 8s. and £8 6s. Similarly bean oil rose from £21 10s. per ton to £30

In China the number of oil mills, which are to be found in every town in the bean district, has shown a steady increase. Newchwang claims 1 Japanese hydraulic bean mill, 7 large Chinese steam mills, 5 small oil-motor mills, and 9 crush-stone mills worked by animals; Antung, 12 Chinese crush-stone mills and 1 steam mill; Dairen, 2 large modern mills (hydraulic and electric) and 40 native mills.

Tea.—The universal beverage of the Chinese, of which the consumption is estimated at 5 lb. per head of the population. According to Bretschneider (*Bot. Sin.* 1892, ii.) the tea plant appears in the ancient Chinese Dictionary, the *Rh-ya*, under the name of *kia* and *k'u-tu.* He points out that the comparatively modern Chinese character *ch'a* arose through a confusion with that of *t'u* somewhere between 202 B.C. and A.D. 25, but that it did not come into general use much before the seventh or eighth century. The earliest use of tea in China is thought to have been as a vegetable relish rather than as a beverage (Watt, *The Commercial Products of India*); a use to which pickled tea-leaves are put to this day by the Shans and Burmans. Bretschneider mentions that in the *Ch'a-pu*—a special treatise on tea, published between the tenth and thirteenth centuries—the Emperor Wen-ti (A.D. 589–605) was recommended by a Buddhist priest to drink boiled *ming* (i.e. tea plant) leaves as a medicine for headache. The habit of drinking a decoction of the specially prepared leaves must be regarded as of comparatively modern origin. In the eighth century we have the first undoubted evidence of tea having become a regular industry, for in the annals of the Ta'ng dynasty we learn of its being subjected to an imperial duty (Watt, *op. cit.*).

The tea plant grows principally in Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Kiangsi, Anhui, Chekiang, Kuangtung and Yunnan, the principal ports of export being Hankow (black tea, and black and green brick tea), Kiukiang and Foochow (black tea), Hangchow, Ningpo, Kiukiang and Santuao (green tea). Tea is black or green according to the method of preparation. It grows in small patches round the homesteads, plantations being practically unknown. The leaves are picked by the members of the family and dried in the sun, being subsequently handed over to the middlemen, who subject them to the process of firing. In the case of green teas the leaves are roasted almost immediately after they are gathered, and dried off quickly after being rolled into balls by hand and squeezed. There are usually three pickings, early in April, when the young leaves are covered with a whitish down (a limited output known as pekoe), towards the middle of May and again in August. Brick tea is made by pressing the damp tea leaves in a mould in the form of a brick, 8 to 12 inches long, and about 1 inch thick. The industry had its origin in Foochow in the early 'seventies. The trade prospered rapidly, and three factories, equipped with British machinery, were in full operation within a few years. In 1875 6,200,000 lb. of brick tea were exported from Foochow; in 1879 13,700,000 lb. The trade prospered with varying success until 1891, when there was a gradual decline, chiefly due to the transfer, for economical reasons, of the Russian tea-market to the Yangtze River tea marts in the neighbourhood of Kiukiang and Hankow. The Foochow trade soon languished, and all three foreign factories were obliged to close. In 1910 a Chinese company—the Chee Woo Brick Tea Co.—was organized, with a capital of $150,000. The company purchased the building and machinery of one of the brick tea factories closed some years previously. The company has two brick tea presses in operation during the season. Output in 1914, 1,600,000 lb. Practically all this product was pressed from the dust, only 2000 lb. of the whole leaf being manufactured into brick form. Tea bricks are packed in bamboo baskets, each basket containing 80 bricks. A brick of tea-dust weighs 40 ozs.; cost of manufacture, 32 cents. A brick of leaf-tea weighs 36 ozs.; cost of manufacture, 48 cents, inclusive of freight to Shanghai, the distributing centre for the product. The factory employs 200 workmen, engaged in day and night shifts, with a daily production of 8000 bricks. Tea-dust used costs $7 to $16·80 per picul ($133\frac{1}{3}$ lb.). Russian firms in Hankow, Kiukiang and Foochow manufacture a higher grade of brick tea, composed mainly of the fannings separated from the tea by winnowing together with tea-dust imported from India and Ceylon, hydraulically pressed into bricks.

The different kinds of China tea have been classified as follows by the late Mr. H. T. Wade, a Shanghai authority:—

BLACK TEAS

(a) *Northern.*

	Province.	
Keemun	Anhui	representing one quarter of the total production of the North.
Ningchow Moning	Kiangsi	
Oopacks Sungyang Yungloutung Tongsan Ichang Cheongshukai	Hupeh.	
Oonahms Oanfa Liling Nipkasee Wunkai Lowyong Shuntam	Hunan.	

(b) *Southern.*

Congou Panyong Packlum Souchong Soomoo Suey Kuts Oolong (Foochow)	Fukien.	Scented Capers. Scented Orange Pekoe. Pouchong. Kooloo. Flowery Pekoe.

Mr. Wade added:—"The fragrance of all scented tea is not natural, but is imparted by firing the leaf with a sort of jasmine flower, called by the Chinese Mok-lee. In inferior teas the scenting flower is strewn over the top of the tea when packed and removed after a day or two. . . . 'Flowery Pekoes are white, velvety tipped teas with no fragrance, and are unfermented. . . . These teas are made only from the earliest buds of young leaves in the Packlum, Chingwo and Panyong districts.'"

GREEN TEAS

	Province.
Moyune Tienkai Fychow	Anhui.
Pingsuey Hoochow Wenchow	Chekiang.

BLENDS

Sowmee (also known as "Shanghai packed").
Gunpowder (Siaou Chu = small leaf).
Imperial (Ta Chu = large leaf).
Hyson.
Young Hyson.
Hyson Skin.
Twankay.

Sowmee, the small leaf of country green teas, is primarily not a blend, but it is often mixed up with Pingsuey and Wenchow leaf, recoloured and packed in Shanghai. "Shanghai packed" teas also include Chunmee, Fongmee, Gunpowder, and sometimes Young Hyson. They were instituted as a means of cheapening the cost of country teas by blending, and in order to find a market for the surplus Chekiang leaf.

The tea trade of China does not keep pace with the world's increasing consumption of tea. In the case of the common black teas India and Ceylon have had little difficulty in capturing the foreign market from China; but the latter, according to one authority, should be able to hold her own in the finer qualities, which so far have not been imitated elsewhere. Chinese methods of cultivation, however, are based on tradition and the needs of the moment; and hitherto have been entirely divorced from scientific knowledge. The attention of the Government is now being directed to an industry which is estimated to give employment to 60,000,000 people. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, the total yearly output of tea is over two million cases of a value of $40,000,000.

The first step towards improving the tea industry was taken in 1905, when a committee was sent to India and Ceylon with a view to studying the methods of cultivation and manufacture adopted in those countries. A school was subsequently established at Nanking, and instruction given in scientific tea culture. In 1915 tea investigation bureaux were formed under Government auspices at Hankow, Shanghai, and Foochow; experimental stations were started, one being in the Keemun district in Anhui province; and the policy of subsidizing certain planters who conformed to the methods of culture prescribed by the Ministry of Agriculture was adopted. In the same year a 20 per cent reduction of the export duty on tea was also carried into effect.

Cotton.—The cultivation of cotton and the spinning of it into yarn were probably unknown to China until the thirteenth century. The industry to-day is almost coextensive with China Proper, but the plant grows best in the Yangtze delta, in Chekiang, Honan and Hupeh. The native cotton staple is very short, and is only adapted to weft and short-end work; but the introduction of new seed has resulted in the growth of a cotton of longer staple in Manchuria. The average yield per acre is reckoned at 490 pounds of seed cotton, or 176·46 pounds of clean cotton. The Chinese Ministry of Agriculture estimated the average annual production of cotton for the years 1909–11 at 15,680,000 *piculs* = 933,333 tons, a figure greatly exceeding the highest estimate previously made by foreigners. It is only within the last twenty years that cotton mills have been erected in China, and the impetus to foreign ownership did not come until legitimized by the Chino-Japan Treaty of 1895. The products of China's cotton mills are subjected to an excise duty of 70 *Hk. Tl.* candareens per picul of yarn, 8 candareens per piece of sheetings, and 10 candareens per piece of drill. Native looms are to be found in most dwellings. According to the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce, only eight provinces in China grow cotton for market purposes. Area devoted to the cotton plant approximately

26,000,000 mow. Annual output should amount to 1,509,000 tons of cotton under proper cultivation. No statistics available of actual output. Five or six years ago there was a considerable increase in the production. This was stimulated by the high prices then prevailing in the United States and India. Also the Government, anxious to encourage cotton growing instead of opium, officially recognized societies for the study of cotton cultivation. These distributed seeds and appointed agents to teach improved methods. Most recent display of interest was the issue in April, 1915, of regulations providing monetary rewards to encourage cotton growing. The Commercial and Industrial Commission established in 1915 is making a systematic effort to improve the cultivation of cotton. An American cotton growing expert (Mr. H. H. Jobson) was been engaged on a three years' contract to assist the Chinese Government. There are four experimental cotton farms—at Tungchow, Wuchang, Chingting Fe (in Honan), and Peking.

Raw cotton exported to foreign countries:—1910, 1,484,885 cwt.; 1911, 1,044,933 cwt.; 1912, 959,180 cwt.; 1913, 879,538 cwt.; 1914, 785,362 cwt.; 1915, 867,208 cwt.; 1916, 1,013,199 cwt.; 1917, 991,027.

Total annual production of the cotton mills in China is 200,000,000 to 250,000,000 pounds of yarn and 40,000,000 to 50,000,000 yards of cloth. Principal kinds of cloth woven are 36 inch 48/48 2·50, 2·85, and 3·00 yard grey sheeting and 30 inch 68/44 or 68/48 2·85 and 3·00 yard drills. One mill in Shanghai has recently begun to weave Canton flannels.

There is no organization among the Chinese cotton mills, and there are no Government industrial statistics. A recent statement gives 37 cotton mills in China with 1,055,300 spindles and 3420 looms, but the number is increasing rapidly. Of the 21 mills in Shanghai 7 are British, 5 Japanese, 9 Chinese, representing in all 642,984 spindles, 3204 looms. Practically all the mills run day and night on a 23-hour schedule. The year 1914 was notable for the degree to which the yarn from Chinese mills displaced Japanese and Indian yarn. For the first time deliveries of Chinese yarn in Shanghai exceeded those of foreign spinnings.

Actual deliveries in Shanghai:—

	1913.	1914.
Shanghai Yarn . .	56,752,000 lb.	77,850,133 lb.
Japanese . . .	59,687,066 ,,	66,727,333 ,,
Indian . . .	78,902,666 ,,	68,839,600 ,,

Sesamum.—Recent years have witnessed a great advance in the export of sesamum seed, which is grown largely in Honan, owing to the facilities afforded by the Peking-Hankow Railway. Nine-tenths of the trade before the war was with Europe (Netherlands, Germany, Italy, Austria, Belgium), where the seed is used for making the finest lucca oil. Exports:—1910, 162,545 tons; 1911, 123,397 tons; 1912, 119,034 tons; 1913, 121,110 tons; 1914, 74,475 tons; 1915, 137,155 tons; 1916, 92,744 tons; 1917, 13,285 tons. Both Manchuria and Kiangsu contribute their quota to the export trade, while the seed is grown in smaller quantities in most parts of the country, the area under cultivation becoming extended with a view to meeting the European demand.

Vegetable Oils.—Oils (apart from bean oil and oils essential) obtained from ground-nuts, tea, wood, etc., are made throughout the country, and some 40 Customs ports share in the trade. The total value of the trade, as registered at the Customs, has been as follows: 1910, £1,640,112; 1911, £1,589,750; 1912, £2,216,577; 1913, £1,778,973; 1914, £1,501,122. The chief ports concerned are Hankow, Kiaochou, Shanghai, and Changsha. Manchuria supplies bean, ground-nut, and castor oil; Kuangtung and Kuangsi, ground-nut, tea, and wood oil, while all kinds come from the Yangtze Valley. The amount exported in recent years has been:—

1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.
130,193,600 lb.	109,978,800 lb.	113,020,533 lb.	120,202,933 lb.	177,621,466 lb.

Nine-tenths of the wood-oil exported from China is made from the *t'ung-yu shu* (tung-oil tree), mainly in Central and Western China, the remainder from the *mu-yu shu* (wood-oil tree), in Kuangsi. Both trees are varieties of Aleurites, a small genus of the Spurge family. Tung-yu is used largely in China as a paint oil for outdoor purposes, also as an adulterant in the manufacture of lacquer varnish. The so-called Chinese or Indian ink is made from the soot obtained from burning the oil or the fruit husks of the tree. Szechuan, Kueichow, Hunan, and northern Hupeh account for practically all the output of tung-yu oil. Hankow, the chief port of export, shipped 34,246 tons in 1915.

Tobacco.—With the exception of Kiangsu, Honan and Chihli, the tobacco plant is cultivated in marketable quantities in every province of China, and figures in the exports of 40 out of 48 Customs stations. The Amoy district is estimated to produce about one-tenth of all the tobacco grown in China. Tobacco is said to have been first introduced into China from the Philippines about 1620. Smoking is now more universal even than the cultivation of the tobacco plant, which, it may be added, is being grown in some places as a substitute for the prohibited poppy. Original export from the various Customs districts in lb.:—

1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
77,004,666	67,690,533	56,467,333	55,035,333	64,451,333

Fibres.—The fibres known to China are abutilon, hemp, jute and ramie, but it is probable that the bulk of the exports figuring under the four headings should all be grouped under the first and last only. Ramie, known also as China-grass (*Boehmeria nivea*), grows mainly in Hupeh, Szechuan and Kuangtung. Hemp (*Cannabis sativa*) is found more widely distributed; in Kiangsi it is harvested three times a year, in June, August and October. Abutilon (*Abutilon aveninaceae*) grows in Hupeh and jute in Chihli.

The movement of fibres through the Customs since 1912 has been as follows (coir taking the place of abutilon since 1915 inclusive):—

	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Abutilon	326	775	693	953	1,052	1,326
Hemp	8,606	8,146	8,288	8,443	10,976	10,119
Jute	3,281	6,108	3,165	7,701	5,862	5,130
Ramie	16,212	15,767	14,691	18,933	19,011	23,022

Vegetable Wax or Tallow.—These are distinct products, derived respectively from "a tree in the Rhus order, probably *Rhus succedanea*," and from the tallow tree, *Stillingia sebifera*. Of the former the Hankow Commissioner of Customs writes (1909):—"The wax-like substance is formed between the kernel and the outer skin of the seed, and in its crude form is of a greenish tinge. . . . It is harder and more wax-like than vegetable tallow, and its melting point is higher." The tallow tree grows in Hupeh and Chekiang, the product being found in the form of a coating round the seed. Movement of vegetable tallow through the Customs: 1913, 16,704 tons (£436,801); 1914, 15,562 tons (£375,359); 1915, 14,917 tons (£344,836); 1916, 24,298 tons (£825,949); 1917, 13,668 tons (£640,002).

Reference may here be made to the white wax industry which flourishes especially in Szechuan. The wax insects are brought in baskets from the Kienchang valley, south of the Ta-tu, to the neighbourhood of Kiating, where they are placed on dwarf ash trees. On these the insects cover themselves and the branches with a thick coating of wax.

Ground-nuts (Pea-nut).—The trade in this commodity has also received considerable impetus in recent years by the growth of the demand on the Continent of Europe. Ground-nuts, which are found in nearly every part of China, contain 46 per cent of oil. Shantung and Kiangsu were formerly the chief producing provinces, but Chihli has now outstripped the latter. In 1913 the Customs handled 136,064 tons (valued at £1,506,981), 42 per cent at Kiaochou. The ground-nuts grown in the Luanchou district (Luan River) are said to be superior in quality to any grown elsewhere in the Far East. "When the fruit begins to develop, the plant tends downwards and thrusts its fruit into the ground, where the nut matures: hence the name."

Recent export figures in tons are as follows:—

1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
63,922	50,997	68,160	30,869	34,354	40,487	31,385

Camphor.—With the cession of Formosa to Japan, China lost her main camphor-producing centre. An attempt was made, consequently, to exploit camphor on the mainland, chiefly in the province of Fukien and also in Kuangsi and Yunnan. The industry reached its high-water mark in 1907, but the rapid destruction of the trees on the part of the Chinese camphor-distiller, without any attempt to replant, has accelerated the extinction of the trade. The Chinese method of distillation is most primitive, the oil often being subjected to sixteen or seventeen distillations before all the camphor is extracted. The export of camphor from China during recent years has been as follows:—

1907.	1908.	1911.	1912.	1913.
3,433,937 lb.	1,742,933 lb.	448,133 lb.	331,000 lb.	248,700 lb.
1914.	**1915.**	**1916.**	**1917.**	
241,333 lb.	181,735 lb.	316,933 lb.	472,933 lb.	

Medicines.—A list of medicines exported from Hankow and other Yangtze ports, compiled by the Maritime Customs, enumerates 421 varieties, divided into the following classes:—

1. Roots (tubers, corms, bulbs, rhizomes).
2. Barks and Husks (root barks, peels, rinds, shells).
3. Twigs and Leaves.
4. Flowers (buds).
5. Seeds and Fruits.
6. Grasses.
7. Insects.
8. Sundries.

Among the latter class are specified a beetle larva, dried silkworms, golden mica, scorpions, scales of a kind of ant-eater, elephant's skin, magnesia scrapings, larva of flies, horns of the antelope, fossil bones, centipedes, hedgehog skin and a variety of mineral preparations.

The following information is from a report of the United States Consul at Chungking, in Szechuan, the chief province in China for medicines and medicinal materials. A list of well-known medicinal materials was submitted to the Chungking Chamber of Commerce, who supplied data regarding the amount available each season and the price (for the early summer, 1915):—

	Chinese name.	Price per 100 lb. £	s.	d.	Amount in lb. annually available
Aconitum wilsoni	Chuan Wu	0	3	6	55,000
,, fischeri	Fu Tzu	0	13	8	400,000
,, hemsleyan	Ts'ao Wu	0	13	1	27,000
Artemisia sp. (wormwood)	Yin Chen	0	7	10	15,000
Asarum himalaicum (poisonous)	Hung Yen	1	19	2	200,000
Cannabis sativa (oil-bearing seed)	Huo Ma Yen	0	7	5	15,000
Cinnamomum cassia	Kuan Kuei	0	4	8	250,000
Coptis Chinensis (crowfoot family)	Ya Huang Lien	9	13	0	13,000
,, ,,	Wei Huang Lien	0	15	8	13,000
Croton tiglium (oil-bearing seeds)	Pa Tou	0	11	0	250,000
Foeniculum vulgare (fennel seed)	Hsiao Hui	0	12	6	150,000
Glycyrrhirfa asperrima (liquorice root)	Kan Tsao	2	7	0	700,000
Rheum officinale (rhubarb)	Ta Huang	2	3	0	250,000
Scutellaria sp.	Chuan Lien Tzu *or* Huang Chin Tzu.	Details not obtained.			
Zanthoxylum bungei	Hua Chiao	2	9	2	150,000
Zingeber officinale	Kan Chiang	0	7	10	1,000,000

Strawbraid.—The manufacture of strawbraid for foreign export is a peasant industry associated mainly with the plain bordering the Yellow River in Western Shantung and Southern Chihli, where a wheat with long straw is grown, but it is also practised in the Yangtze delta. Owing to the defective methods of bleaching employed by the Chinese the strawbraid used to be sent to England to be re-bleached at Luton and re-shipped to the Continent. With the opening of Taingtao, the strawbraid intended for the Continent came to be shipped direct from that port. The exports in recent years have been as follows:—

	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.
Amount in cwt.	160,959	143,759	151,360	120,282
Value	£1,035,755	£1,383,155	£1,166,955	£766,391

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Amount in cwt.	19,819	53,721	67,952	48,243
Value	£150,692	£371,345	£521,423	£519,567

France, Japan, Great Britain and the United States have shared this export in the following proportions :—

Percentages.

	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
France	43	41	55	42	33	27	21	—
Great Britain	13	14	6	4	7	14	27	9
United States	12	16	13	16	22	24	7	42
Japan						29	39	45

Vermicelli.—The making of vermicelli and macaroni is another peasant industry. The ingredients are, for the better qualities, wheat flour, rice paste, green beans ; and for inferior qualities, sweet potatoes, or kaoliang with a small admixture of beans. Chefoo (Ninghai and Fushun districts), where the green bean, known as *lü tou*, is used, is the headquarters of the trade, with Hankow, Amoy and Swatow as other centres. The export in recent years has been as follows :—

1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
37,876,266 lb.	31,562,933 lb.	38,350,666 lb.	31,030,800 lb.	27,266,000 lb.

Sugar.—In Kuangtung and Fukien and in Szechuan and Yunnan China would probably be able to produce under proper methods of cultivation and with scientific treatment as much sugar as is required for national consumption. As things are, the country imports ten times the amount that comprises the internal trade, while in Szechuan foreign loaf sugar has been reported to sell as a sweetmeat at five or six cash a lump. Efforts are now being made, however, under official auspices, to improve the position of the industry by the establishment of modern refineries. At Swatow, the chief centre of the sugar industry, the export shows a gradual decrease. Hongkong, with its superior refineries, attracts the raw cane, and the Swatow product is degenerating, but the outbreak of the European War and the consequent dislocation of the world's sugar markets caused a revival in the industry, which reached its high-water mark in 1899. The following figures represent the movement of brown and white sugar through the Customs of the original place of production in cwt. :—

1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
1,833,197	914,263	787,902	1,020,575	883,106	1,107,148

Wheat.—Wheat, the staple food of the North, as rice is of the South and Middle China, is grown in nearly every province of China, but Manchuria stands first with an estimated production of 10,000,000 bushels annually. An official estimate places the total wheat yield in China at 26 million tons annually ; that of Kaoliang at 5 million tons, and other cereals, not including rice and beans (*q.v.*) at 7 million tons. Movement of flour (Shanghai supplying from 70 to 75 per cent) through Customs stations in cwt. :—

1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
2,400,653	2,670,526	2,838,889	4,432,857	4,371,397	5,208,948

FISHERIES

See Chapter III.

SALT

The Salt Gabelle

Salt is a Government monopoly. Hitherto it has been produced under licence, conveyed in bond to depôts, and then sold to licensed dealers, who in turn dispose of it to licensed retailers, in all its stages the salt paying tax. For purposes of salt production and consumption China under the Manchu Dynasty was divided into eleven areas, and the transport of salt from one area to another was forbidden. By the terms of the Reorganization Loan Agreement of 1913 the Government undertook to reorganize with the assistance of foreigners the system of collecting the salt revenues, and a Provisional Order on this subject was issued on December 24, 1913 (Chap. XVI). The revenue from the Salt Tax in 1916 was $72,440,000 (about £7,800,000); in 1915 it exceeded $69,000,000. The retail price of salt has varied from 25 to 60 cash per catty (1⅓ lb.). The importation of foreign salt is prohibited by treaty.

Three methods of salt production are used in China. Their geographical distribution is as follows:—

I. Sun-dried salt, produced by evaporation in ponds about six inches deep.
  A. From sea brine (at the coast): Newchwang district, Changlu district (Chihli), Shantung, Northern Huai district (Kiangsu), Fukien, Kuangtung.
  B. From wells or lakes (inland): Shansi, Shensi, Mongolia, Sinkiang.
II. "Boiled" salt (inland), produced by evaporation in iron pans over fires: Szechuan, Yunnan.
III. "Board evaporated," or "boiled" (at the coast), produced by evaporation on boards: Southern Huai district (Kiangsu), Chekiang.

MINERALS, MINES AND MINING

The supervision of mining affairs is vested in the Bureau of Mining Affairs. Mining enterprises are under the control of the Commissioner of Finance in each province, who has the assistance of two mining experts.

In the absence of official statistics a variety of estimates have appeared from time to time of China's mineral wealth and annual output of minerals. Some Government figures are now available and have been incorporated in the following table:—

Mineral.	Acreage.	Production, 1914.	No. of Proprietors.
Coal	133,513	6,315,735 tons	4,962
Iron ore	8,283	468,938 ,,	535
Tin ore	3,700	689,789 ,,	28
Antimony	718,174	28,316 ,,	175
Gold	29,522	71,512 oz.	199
Silver	3,332	107,155 ,,	18
Lead	2,335	13,527 tons	18
Copper	7,431	10,963 ,,	70
Other minerals	3,754	317,022 ,,	195

An authoritative survey of the mineral wealth of China was contained in a paper read (1913) by Mr. T. T. Read, late Professor of Metallurgy, Peiyang University, before the American Institute of Mining Engineers. The information included in this section is based upon Mr. Read's paper, Consular and other reports, and information obtained from some of the Mining Companies themselves.

COAL

Mr. Read estimated the coal production of China at 13,190,000 tons, distributed as follows :—

Approximate Estimate of the Present Coal Production of China

Province.	Anthracite.	Bituminous.	Sub-bituminous and lignite.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Manchuria	—	25,000	1,000,000
Chihli	840,000	2,090,000	150,000
Shansi	4,000,000	25,000	—
Shensi	—	500,000	—
Kansu	—	500,000	—
Shantung	300,000	500,000	—
Honan	1,000,000	—	—
Szechuan	—	500,000	—
Kueichow	—	250,000	—
Yunnan	—	300,000	—
Chekiang	—	10,000	—
Kiangsi	—	700,000	—
Hunan	—	200,000	—
Kuangtung	—	50,000	—
Kuangsi	—	100,000	—
Other provinces	—	100,000	—
Total	6,140,000	5,900,000	1,150,000

Mr. Kato, a Japanese authority, arrived at the following figures for 1910, and his estimate corresponds more or less with that of the Ministry of Agriculture and Commerce for 1914, which is given in the second column :—

Mr. Kato's Estimate, 1910.		Chinese Official Estimate, 1914.
Manchuria—1,300,000 tons.		840,000 tons.
Fushun Collieries	840,000 tons.	
Penhsihu	100,000 ,,	
Yentai	75,000 ,,	
Niuhsintai	60,000 ,,	
Wuhutsui	30,000 ,,	
Lianghsi	50,000 ,,	
Other collieries	145,000 ,,	

	Mr. Kato's Estimate, 1910.	Chinese Official Estimate, 1914.
CHIHLI—2,164,312 tons.		2,160,000 tons.
Kaiping Collieries .	1,174,312 tons.	
Tongshan . .	300,000 ,,	
Lanchow . .	170,000 ,,	
Ching Hsing . .	150,000 ,,	
Lincheng . . .	130,000 ,,	
Shihmenchai . .	100,000 ,,	
Weichow . .	50,000 ,,	
Tzuchow . . .	50,000 ,,	
Chiming . . .	30,000 ,,	
Other mines . .	10,000 ,,	
SHANSI . . .	2,500,000 tons.	2,500,000 tons.
SHENSI . . .	50,000 ,,	50,000 ,,
KANSU . . .	50,000 ,,	...
SHANTUNG—933,456 tons.		932,000 tons.
Fangtze and Hungshan Collieries .	483,456 tons.	
Ihsien . . .	250,000 ,,	
Poshan . . .	200,000 ,,	
HONAN—900,205 tons.		500,000 tons.
Chinghuachen Collieries . . .	357,205 tons.	
Changkou and Paishan . . .	250,000 ,,	
Liuhokou . . .	100,000 ,,	
Juchow and Lushan .	100,000 ,,	
Other mines . .	93,000 ,,	
SZECHUAN . . .	300,000 ,,	800,000 tons.
KUEICHOW . . .	50,000 ,,	...
YUNNAN . . .	30,000 ,,	30,000 ,,
KIANGSI—800,000 tons.		800,000 tons.
Pinghsiang . .	640,000 tons.	
Fengcheng . .	50,000 ,,	
Ichun . . .	30,000 ,,	
Loping . . .	20,000 ,,	
Other mines . .	60,000 ,,	
HUNAN . . .	500,000 ,,	300,000 tons.
HUPEH . . .	100,000 ,,	100,000 ,,
ANHUI . . .	60,000 ,,	30,000 ,,
KUANGTUNG . .	50,000 ,,	50,000 ,,
KUANGSI . . .	70,000 ,,	50,000 ,,
KIANGSU . . .	30,000 ,,	...
Total output in other provinces . .	10,000 ,,	130,000 ,,
Grand Total	9,897,973 tons.	9,272,000 tons.

In 1915 it was estimated that the total production of coal in China amounted to 18,000,000 tons, of which 8,000,000 tons came from modern equipped mines, and the balance from small native mines, Shansi, Hunan, and Szechuan together producing about 5,000,000 tons. The following comprise the modern mines, with output in 1915:—

	Tons.		Tons.
Kailan	2,971,792	Chunghsing	244,825
Fushun	2,034,856	Chinghsing	179,154
Pinghsiang	927,463	Paoching	131,396
Peking	480,875	Liuhokon	91,822
Penshihu	275,777	Tunghsing	80,000
Lin Cheng	259,703		

The principal collieries in China, employing modern machinery, of which details are obtainable, are:—

Coal Mines (Foreign Concessions)

Pekin Syndicate, Ltd.—This Company owns the Jamiesen Collieries at Chinghuachen in Honan. Capital, £1,242,822. Opened, 1905. Output began, 1908. Anthracite. Three shafts were in operation up to the end of September, 1912, and the daily output was 1500 tons, gradually rising to 2000 tons per day, which figure was reached in the middle of September. The output for 1915, was 480,875 tons. The number of hands employed was 8000.

Frequent disputes with the adjoining native mines led in June, 1915, to an agreement with the Chung Yuan Company for the formation of the Fu Chung Corporation, with a nominal capital of $1,000,000 subscribed equally by the Syndicate and the Company, which are also represented equally on the Board of Management. The Corporation is the sole selling agent of all the coal produced by the two concerns, and is granted exclusive coal mining rights in the Huaichingfu Prefecture outside the areas now operated.

The head office of the Syndicate is at 110 Cannon Street, London.

The head office in China is Jameisen, Honan. Agent-General and Engineer-in-Chief, J. P. Kenrick. Branches: Tientsin, Shanghai, and Hankow.

Schantung Bergbau Gesellschaft (Shangtung Mining Company). German. Collieries at Fangtze, Weihsien district (102 miles from Tsingtao), Hungshan, Poshan district (168 miles from Tsingtao), and Kiulinghsien. Opened in 1902. Employees in 1912 numbered 60 Germans, 7000 Chinese. Coal (anthracite and bituminous) and iron ore. Output 1914, 560,000 tons.

Original capital, 10,000,000 marks. In 1912 the Company was taken over by the Shantung Railway. Chief Engineer, Dr. M. Brucher (German). Number of shafts, 6; depth, 860 feet.

South Manchuria Railway Company (*Fushun Collieries*). Japanese. Owning the Fushun collieries at Fushun, near Mukden, in Manchuria, connected by railway with Suchiatun on the South Manchuria Railway. Operated from April 1, 1907. Fields are unparalleled in the world for thickness and volume of seams. Calculated to contain 800,000,000 tons. Bituminous coal with heating power of 6800 calories. The Japanese found three pits working in 1907. They opened two fresh mines, the Oyama and Togo; coal was struck in the former at a depth of 1160 feet, in the latter at 863 feet. The coal belongs to the tertiary period and is surrounded by gneiss of old formation and by basalt rock. Production for the year ending March 31, 1918, 2,275,905 tons, the average daily output being 6236 tons. Since the beginning of 1918 the average daily output has increased to about 8500 tons. Up to 1914 all the mines were worked by the pillar-and-stall system, but in 1914 sand-flushing system installed at several of the pits with good results. Electric railways runs from Fushun station to the pits, and another electric railway from the Hunho river. The electrification of these railways on the overhead high tension direct-current system is the first of its kind to be adopted in the Far East. Fushun coal contains 1·5 per cent nitrogen. Mond gas plant installed, capable of gasifying 240 tons of coal per diem. Plant so designed that it can be enlarged to twice the present capacity, 120,000 cubic feet per diem. Daily output of sulphate of ammonia 9 to 10 tons, the entire output going to Japan. Daily output expected to be raised to 30 tons. Brick factory turns out 2000 bricks daily. Coking plant (5 ovens, each capable of heating 10 tons in 36 hours). Average yield of coke 65 per cent.

Output:	April, 1909–March, 1910	706,042 tons.
,,	April, 1910–March, 1911	898,482 ,,
,,	April, 1911–March, 1912	1,343,199 ,,
,,	April, 1912–March, 1913	1,480,000 ,,
,,	April, 1913–March, 1914	2,273,000 ,,
,,	April, 1914–March, 1915	2,093,000 ,,
,,	April, 1915–March, 1916	...
,,	April, 1916–March, 1917	...
,,	April, 1917–March, 1918	2,275,905 ,,

Head Office.—South Manchuria Railway Company (Mining Department), Dairen.

Depots at Dairen, Port Arthur, Newchwang and Tientsin.

Note.—By an agreement dated July, 1902, the Syndicat de Yunnan, an Anglo-French Syndicate, acquired the right to work mineral deposits, including coal, in seven prefectures in Yunnan. The Syndicate met with obstruction at every turn, and in 1912 it retroceded all its rights to the Chinese Government in consideration of a payment of Tls. 1,500,000.

The Eastern Pioneer Company (British) was formed in 1899 with a capital of £300,000, to exploit a mining concession in Szechuan granted by the Chinese Government. The concession has not been worked, and a claim for compensation has been lodged against the Chinese authorities.

Coal Mines (Joint Chinese and Foreign Concessions)

The Kailan Mining Administration.—In 1912 the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company and the Lanchow Collieries were amalgamated under the title of the Kailan Mining Administration. Ever since its formation the former had to encounter strenuous opposition. The

Chinese Government consistently refused to recognize the rights claimed by the Company and challenged its claims to exclusive mining rights in the Kaiping coalfield. The Lanchow Mining Company was formed to work in opposition to the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company within the area over which the latter claimed exclusive mining rights.

In January, 1911, a rate war started between the two collieries, in the course of which the price of dust coal was reduced from $6·40 to $3 per ton. Intermittent negotiations with a view to arriving at a settlement took place throughout 1911. At length, on January 27, 1912, a preliminary agreement was signed between the rival Companies, by which they were to become amalgamated as the Kailan Mining Administration. The terms of this agreement, which was subsequently ratified by both parties on June 1, were to the following effect:—

With a view to expanding their business the Kaiping and Lanchow Companies agreed to form an Association to be called the Kailan Mining Administration. The two Companies would remain separate, each retaining its share capital, namely, £1,000,000 sterling in each case. As regards the division of profits, the shareholders of the British Company are to receive 60 per cent and the shareholders of the Lanchow Company 40 per cent of all net profits up to £300,000. Net profits in excess of that sum are to be equally divided, as are profits which may be derived from any new business or additional coal shafts. "Net profit" is defined as meaning the profit after deducting all working expenses, and paying interest and amortization charges upon the outstanding debentures of both Companies, and upon the following debentures which the British Company has undertaken to raise: Tls. 1,500,000, to be paid to the Lanchow Company for the payment of debts; Tls. 1,000,000 to be paid to Mr. Chang Yen-mao; £50,000 to be paid to the Kailan Mining Administration; and Tls. 500,000 to be reimbursed to the Chihli Viceroy. The only other deduction is to be 15 per cent of the gross profits, or not less than £35,000 per annum, for a joint reserve fund. The Directors of the two Companies are to be elected according to their original regulations, but the new Administration is to establish at Tientsin a Deliberating Board, to which each Company will elect three members, to discuss the affairs of the Administration, and to report from time to time on its working to the Boards of Directors. All accounts of both Companies are to be kept in English and Chinese, and are to be rendered twice a year. The Administration will confine its activities to the mining areas of the Kaiping and Lanchow Mining Companies, within which limits no development may be made by other competitors. After the shareholders have been paid £150,000 from the profits, one-fifteenth part of all remaining profits is to be paid into the Chihli Provincial Treasury for the development of industries. Ten years from the date of signature of the agreement the Lanchow Mining Company is to have the right to purchase the entire property of the Chinese Engineering and Mining (Kaiping) Company at a just price to be agreed upon by both parties.

In accordance with the terms of the Final Agreement confirming the above conditions, the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company was dissolved and replaced by a new Company of the same name. The amalgamation came into effect upon July 1, 1912.

OUTPUT.—The total output of the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company, Ltd., for the 12 months from July 1, 1911, to June 30, 1912, was **1,461,822** tons, and of the Kailan Mining Administration from July 1, 1912, to June 30, 1913, 1,728,296 tons. Sales, July, 1913–June, 1914, 2,411,038 tons; July, 1914–June, 1915, 2,692,382 tons. Chief Engineer, Alex. Docquier (Belgian). Gross profits for the year 1914–15, $5,448,605; net profits, $3,286,415. Coal in sight at June 30, 1915, 16,430,000 tons. The Company owns two steamers, s.s. *Kaiping*, registered tonnage 1605, carrying 3150 tons, and s.s. *Kwangping*, registered tonnage 1243, carrying 2150 tons.

SHAFTS.—There are nine shafts working, and the number of hands employed by the Administration is 11,000.

DELIBERATING BOARD.—The Deliberating Board provided for under the amalgamation agreement is constituted as follows :—

Major W. S. Nathan, R.E., P. H. Kent, Esq., and P. S. Thornton, Esq., representing the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company; and Messrs. Li Shih-wei, Li Shih-chien and Wong Shoh-lien representing the Lanchow Mining Company.

The C. E. and M. Co. (capital £1,000,000; debentures 6 per cent, £1,200,000) paid 10 per cent dividend for year ending June 30, 1915.

Mentoukou Colliery (Anglo-Chinese). Owned by the Tung Hsing Sino-Foreign Coal Mining Co., Ltd. Capital, Tls. 1,000,000 (Tls. 500,000 Chinese, Tls. 500,000 Foreign). Development has been hindered by disputes as to ownership. A branch line of the Peking-Kalgan Railway connects the collieries with Peking (16 miles). Chief Engineer, M. H. Wilkinson, M.I.M.E.

Chinghsing Collieries, at Chinghsing, Chihli province (Shansi Border). Owned by a Sino-German company. Capital, Tls. 500,000. A railway line has been built connecting the mines with the Shansi Railway. Opened in 1908. Equipped with modern machinery. German engineers. Daily capacity 1000 tons. Output, 1914, 257,051 tons. Output 700 tons per day. Chief Engineer, F. Klicker (German). The number of men employed is about 2000. The Colliery has acquired the Liu Ho Kou Mine, on a light railway about 15 miles west of Fenglochen on the Peking-Hankow Railway (Chihli). The output of this mine amounts to between 250 and 400 tons per day.

The Chinghsing Mines have issued bonds to the amount of Tls. 250,000 with interest at 7 per cent, redeemable at any time after the expiration of five years, and put another issue of Tls. 250,000 upon the market upon the same terms in the latter part of last year. Both bond issues are secured upon a first mortgage on all the property, rights, and privileges of the Chinghsing Mines.

Chunghsing Collieries, at Tsochuang, Ihsien District, Shantung. Sino-German company. Capital, Tls. 2,500,000. A railway from the mines to Lincheng on the Tientsin-Pukow Railway (Northern Section) was completed in May, 1912. Output in 1915, 244,825 tons.

Loping, Kiangsi. In 1915 the Japan-China Industrial Company acquired the rights for a coal mine at Mingshan in the Loping district.

Chinese Coal Mines. (With foreign machinery.)

Penhsihu Coal and Iron Works, at Penshihu, South Manchuria (semi-anthracite). Capital, $4,000,000. Operations began, January, 1911. Chief Engineer, Dr. Oshima (Japanese). Number of inclined shafts, 6; depth, 600 feet. Output, 1915, 275,777 tons.

Niuhsintai Colliery, under joint Sino-Japanese management. Operated since summer 1914. Light railway, 16 miles long, connects colliery with Penhsihu; line to be extended to Chienchang. Capital partly furnished by Penhsihu Colliery and Mining Co.

Paoching Collieries, at Pingtingchou, Eastern Shansi, on the Chengting-Taiyuanfu Railway. Owners, the Pao Chin Mining Company of Shansi. Output, 1915, 131,396 tons.

To Li Mines, west of Changhsien, on Peking-Hankow Railway, 15 miles south-west of Peking. Owned by a Chinese syndicate, which is constructing an overhead railway from the mines to station at Changsintien. This line will be able to transport 1000 tons of coal per diem.

Lin Cheng Mines, 11 miles by branch line from Ya Ko-ing, on Peking-Hankow Railway, 218 miles from Peking. Chinese company; K. Y. Kwong, Esq., co-Manager and Engineer. O. Mamet, Esq. (Belgian), Managing Engineer. Modern mining machinery. Two shafts, 4·80 metres in diameter and 200 metres deep, were sunk in 1911, each with an estimated capacity of 2000 tons of coal in ten hours. Number of workmen employed, 2000. Output, 1915, 259,703 tons.

A sales agreement was made in 1914 between the Lin Cheng Mines and the Chinghsing Mines (*q.v.*) by which the market in the districts of the Shansi Railway is restricted to the latter, and that of the Chengtefu-Toyueh section of the Peking-Hankow Railway is restricted to the Lin Cheng Mines. The section between Toyueh and Peking is under control of the Peiyang Shou Mei Kung Ssu, which collects all orders and divides them equally between the two companies. It also has a sale agreement with the Kailan Mining Administration for the Peking District.

Pinghsiang Mines, at Anyuan, a small village five miles east of Pinghsiang, Kiangsi province, connected by rail (65 miles) with Chuchow (on the future Canton-Hankow Railway) on the Hsiang River, 294 miles by water from Hankow. Owned by the Hanyehping Iron and Coal Company. Average daily output 2400 tons. Output, 1909, was 520,000 tons; 1910, 640,000 tons; 1911, 600,994 tons; 1914, 560,000 tons; 1915, 927,463 tons; 1917, 992,493 tons. Maximum daily output 3000 tons; 10,000 workmen employed.

On the resignation in 1914 of the German engineer-in-chief, who had held the post for twenty years, a Chinese mining engineer, Mr. S. Ken Huang, was appointed to succeed him, and the German staff has been very considerably reduced. The manager is Mr. Li Sheo-chuan.

Tan Shan Wan Coal Mine, at Tayeh, in Hupeh province, purchased by the Hupeh Provincial Government from Messrs. Bouchard & Co., for Tls. 800,000.

Poshan Mines. The Chinese-owned mines in the Poshan Valley, 70 miles east of Tsinanfu, capital of Shantung, are said to have produced 250,000 tons of coal in 1910. The valley, which is about 20 miles long, and from a few hundred yards wide at one end to six miles in width in the north-west, is described as one vast coal-bed, which radiates out in different directions where the coal-bed, after being interrupted, is continued. Worked by Japanese military authorities in Shantung after the reopening of the Tsingtao-Tsinanfu Railway, with output about 35 tons daily.

Hungshan Mine (Shantung). Operated from March, 1915. Anthracite. Daily output, 500 tons, with prospects of increasing to 13,000 tons, Staff, 31 Chinese, 26 Japanese, and 1500 hands. Annual output when mining equipment complete estimated at 700,000 to 800,000 tons.

Tzechuan Colliery (Shantung). Work resumed under Japanese experts in January, 1915. Daily output about 1000 tons, to be increased to 2500 tons in spring of 1916. Shantung Railway takes 300–400 tons daily.

Kueichou Mines, at Siangki, Hupeh province, 30 miles from the Yangtze and 80 miles above Ichang. Worked by native methods. Connected with the Yangtze by small navigable streams. Estimated monthly output, 400 tons.

Lung Wang Tung Mines, near Chungking, Szechuan. Formerly owned by the Kiang Pei Ting Mining Company (British), now in the hands of the Chiang Ho Mining Company (Chinese), and worked by native methods.

Liuhokow Colliery, at Anyanghsien, Honan. 5 shafts nominally in operation, of which 3 were reported in 1918 as being in a workable condition, the others being flooded. Present capacity from 500 to 600 tons a day. Output, 1915, 91,822 tons.

Iron

Iron is the second in importance of China's mineral resources. Only however, where iron and coal are found in close proximity does it pay to work iron deposits by Chinese methods. Iron ore is to be found in almost every province, but only in a few districts is it worked on an extensive scale.

The following notes are taken from Mr. Read's paper :—

Shansi.—The iron-ores of Shansi are limonite and hematite, occurring in shales and sandstones of carboniferous age ; the varieties of method of occurrence are so numerous that to attempt their description would require too much space. Usually they are in masses of no great size, commonly in or near a disturbed zone in the strata, or else in beds or flat veins, from a few inches to not more than 3 ft. thick, of limited extent. It follows, therefore, that no sufficient supply of uniform ore in enough quality can be obtained from the Shansi deposits, so far as yet explored, to form the basis of blast-furnace work on a large scale. . . .

The ore, mined through shallow round or rectangular shafts, is broken into small pieces and hand-sorted into several grades, which are sold to the smelting-plants. Here it is mixed with 50 per cent of its volume of coal and packed into cylindrical crucibles, 5 in. in inner diameter, and usually 45 in. high. From 250 to 275 of these crucibles are set upright in a rectangular furnace, about 12 by 6 by 4 ft. Air-space is secured at the bottom by a layer of broken crucibles, over which is placed a layer of coal; then the crucibles are set in place, with coal between them; the front side is closed, the whole is covered over with coal and allowed to burn by natural draft for three days. The crucibles are then removed and the contents taken out. This operation usually involves breaking the bottom part of the crucible, which now contains an irregular "bloom" of iron of very variable composition, irregular fragments of iron, earthy residues, and a certain amount of coke. The bloom is sold to the makers of wrought-iron, the small pieces of iron are sold to the makers of cast-iron, and the coke is used in the manufacture of crucibles. It should be noted that the product of this method of melting is not pig-iron, in the ordinary sense of the word, as it contains very little carbon, and is malleable. The bloom is worked into wrought-iron by heating in a wood fire and hammering until it is worked down into a rectangular ingot, which is then sold, and either manufactured locally into various objects and utensils, or shipped in the ingot form to all parts of the country. The small pieces of iron are mixed with coal and placed in crucibles, about 7 by 14 in., and from 50 to 80 of these are placed in a smaller furnace, blown by hand. When the iron is melted the covering of the furnace is removed, the crucibles are taken out, the contents of several crucibles are poured into one, and this is then poured into moulds, which have previously been prepared with extraordinary skill. In this way various cooking-utensils, especially *kuo*, are cast, often of remarkable thinness, as the castings contain as much as from 5 to 7 per cent of phosphorus, which has been taken up from the coal during the reduction and remelting.

Hupeh.—The iron-ores at Tayeh occur about fifteen miles west of the Yangtze river, and lie along the contact between a marble and an intrusive body of a dark grey syenitic rock. There is no direct evidence in the neighbourhood as to the age of the marble, but on lithological grounds it seems identical with the limestone occurring near Nanking. There is much doubt as to exact correlation of China fossil fauna with that of other countries, and in nearly all cases coals in China belong to the carboniferous, or the immediately overlying series. If these two are identical, it would then appear that this limestone is a horizon for iron-ores in the Yangtze valley, as they are associated with it in notable amount near Nanking, as will be noticed later.

Manchuria.—In Manchuria quite an amount of iron is produced by native methods at T'iehling, 44 miles north of Mukden, the ore coming from an adjacent range of hills. Recent Japanese reports are to the effect that iron-ores containing about 50 per cent of iron exist along the line of the Mukden-Antung railroad, and also at Sai-ma-chi, Tung-hua, and "Puaijin." The north-east part of the province is only sparsely settled, and no other deposits have yet been opened.

Mongolia.—Practically nothing is known of the iron resources of the vast extent of Mongolia. At present the lack of transportation removes them from consideration, but it is not unlikely that the Peking-Kalgan railroad will be extended to meet the Trans-Siberian road, and the coal and iron resources of this great area may have to be considered in the future.

Shensi.—Richthofen states that in Shensi the conditions as regard iron-ores are probably similar to those in Shansi, and assigns their lack of development to the character of the coal, which is not so suitable for the native methods of smelting. The fact that Shansi lies much nearer the markets for iron is also of importance, for where transportation is so expensive it would be impossible to ship across a producing district and compete with it, unless conditions were immensely more favourable in the more remote district. At any rate, Shensi must also be included as an area of which but little information is available at present, but which may become of importance in the future.

Chihli.—In the province of Chihli iron-ore occurs at several places, notably in the north-east part; but I do not regard any of these as likely to become the basis of a permanent industry.

Shantung.—Magnetite occurs in the province of Shantung, at P'ao-shan, about 50 li south of T'ungchou. Not far from this locality, at "King-kwo-shan," different ore occurs, according to Williamson. Near Chefoo specular ore occurs. It is not probable that the ores at these and numerous other places in the province offer much promise of success by development on a large scale, otherwise the German interests which have been so active in stimulating the growth of industry in the province would have undertaken their exploitation.

Kiangsu.—In Kiangsu province iron-ores are widely distributed, occurring chiefly in the region about Nanking in association with the limestone previously mentioned. Richthofen seems to regard these of little promise because of the absence of coal of suitable quality in the neighbourhood. But when the distance to which iron-ores are transported in the United States is considered, and the fact that the ores in question are conveniently adjacent to the Yangtze river, it seems much more probable that these ores will be the next to be developed on a modern scale. The ore is probably of similar character to that of Tayeh, previously described.

Anhui.—In the province of Anhui the geological conditions are similar to those in Kiangsu and Hupeh. A concession was granted to the London and China Syndicate to exploit copper-mines in this province. A few years since, when the Chinese Government cancelled the concession by a payment of £52,000, the mines were transferred to a Chinese company.

Honan.—The province of Honan is largely alluvial plain. In the north-west part the conditions are similar to those existing in Shansi, and similar ores occur. These ores have not been the basis of a flourishing native industry, but some large deposits are known to occur, and it has recently been proposed to develop them by modern methods.

Szechuan.—In Szechuan iron-ore is widely distributed, and both Baber and Hosie mention numerous places in which it is the basis of a native industry; but neither of these authors gives enough details upon which to base a judgment as to the future of the industry.

Yunnan and Kueichow.—"Throughout Yunnan iron is mined and worked in practically every prefecture. It occurs as magnetite, as hematite, and as block-band chiefly, but titaniferous iron ore, siderite and sulphate of iron may be noticed. At Tunghai, south of Yunnanfu, iron is melted in rough blast-shaped furnaces, about 30 ft. high, built of clay and bricks. At Weiningchow, where an enormous number of cast iron pots are made, the iron is first cast into pigs, then remelted in a small blast furnace, before it is cast. Iron is also found and worked in the Mingkuang valley north of Tengyuen in western Yunnan."—A. J. Moore-Bennett, in the *Far Eastern Review.* [Mr. Read in his paper merely noted the absence of definite information in regard to these two provinces.]

Hunan.—Iron-ore of inferior quality occurs in Hunan, but is only worked by the natives at Chin-chou, near the southern border of the province, where the quality is much better. Very probably exploratory surveys would disclose valuable deposits at points not convenient for the application of native methods.

Chekiang.—In Chekiang province there is a native industry in an area extending from near Ningpo down into the province of Fukien. But as the ores consist of grains of hematite which are washed by hand from the sands of the streams, this district may be dismissed as of no future importance.

Fukien.—At "Ankhoe," in Fukien province, about 60 or 70 miles from Amoy, there is a large deposit of magnetite, estimated to contain 10,000,000 tons of ore, according to a report given to me by consular officials. It is favourably situated for working, but unfortunately the report says nothing as to the amount of titanium present in the ore.

Kuangtung and Kuangsi.—In Kuangtung and Kuangsi provinces, iron-ore is produced in Hsinhuihsien, and is both produced and smelted at Hsinhuihsien and Yanganhsien, the annual production at the latter place amounting in value to $500,000 Mex.

Mines Working

1. *Tayeh Iron Mines*, at Tiehshanpu, 17 miles by light railway from Huangshihkang on the Yangtze, 70 miles below Hankow, in Hupeh province. Owned and managed by the Han Yeh Ping Iron and Coal Corporation. Total amount of ore in sight variously estimated, but may be put at 50,000,000 tons. Two principal mines, Tetaowan, producing the best quality ore (65 per cent pure), and Tiehshan (58 to 63 per cent pure). Ore is shared between Hanyang Iron Works and Japan (Imperial Japanese Iron Works at Wakamatsu and the Muroran Steel Works). Under Japanese supervision; men employed, 2700. Maximum daily output, 2000–2200 tons. Chief Engineer, Wang Shou-san (Chinese). Output 1916: 603,732 tons. A new mine has been purchased, and it is expected that the output will be increased to 700,000 tons annually. Steps are being taken to develop the manganese mine in the vicinity.

The Han Yeh Ping Iron and Coal Co., Ltd.—Chinese Company (Headquarters, Shanghai), owning Iron Works at Hankow-Hangyang, the Tayeh Iron Mines, and Collieries at Pinghsiang, Kiangsi. Japanese capital is invested in the Company, and by the agreement between China and Japan of May, 1915, the Chinese Government undertook not to convert the Company into a State-owned concern nor to compel it to borrow money from other than Japanese sources. Capital, $20,000,000. Plant can produce 15,000 tons of pig-iron every month, 7000 tons steel rails, and an almost unlimited number of steel plates, nails, etc. Ground occupied by Hankow works over 100,000 square feet. Employees, 40 foreign engineers and 8050 Chinese labourers. Output 1914: pig-iron, 135,000 tons; steel, 98,536 tons; bolts, 900 tons; fire-bricks, 1200 tons. During 1914 a No. 4 blast furnace and a No. 7 steel furnace were constructed and extensions were made in other directions. Branch iron works have been established at Tayeh.

2. *Tungkuan Shan Mines*, Tungling district on the Yangtze, 55 miles above Wuhu, Anhui province. A concession to work these mines, granted to the London and China Syndicate (British) in 1904, was surrendered in 1910 for the sum of £52,000, and the mines were transferred to a Chinese company to be formed for their exploitation.

3. *Taochung Iron Mine*, at Taochung, Fanchanghsien, Anhui province. The concession which was granted to the Sino-Japanese Industrial Development Co. will be worked by the Oriental Steel Manufacturing Co. The mine is said to contain 60,000,000 tons of ore, containing 65 per cent of pure iron. The plan of operations provides for the production of pig iron at the rate of 170,000 tons a year, a steel mill with a capacity of 100.000 tons of steel ingots a year, and a casting and forging mill to produce 75,000 tons a year.

4. *Chinlingchen Iron Mine*, 7 miles from Chinlingchen station on the Shantung Railway. Worked in conjunction with the Hengshan Colliery by the Railway, and connected by light line with Chinlingchen. Quality of the ore favourably reported upon by experts.

5. *Penhsihu Mine.* One of the most promising mines in the nine mining areas in South Manchuria, where the Japanese are permitted by an exchange of notes between the Chinese and Japanese Governments (May 25, 1915) to prospect for and operate mines. The seam of this mine extends from near Liaoyang to the neighbourhood of Penhsihu, and in size is pronounced equal to the Tayeh mine. Percentage of iron varies according to the locality. The working of the mine to be entrusted to the South Manchuria Railway Co. The Company proposes to manufacture iron as well as mine it. A site for the smeltery on the opposite side of the Penhsihu river, comprising about 83 acres of land, has been chosen. Capital estimated at not less than $5,000,000. Daily output of pig-iron 120 tons; sometimes 147 tons. Estimated total output for 1915 36,000 tons. Percentages of phosphorus and sulphur in Penhsihu pig-iron, ·00038 and ·00044, compare favourably with ordinary percentages, ·0024 and ·005. Ordinary pig-iron is quoted at $17.50; Pensihu is worth about $35. The Japanese navy is purchasing some of the Penhsihu output. Osaka Iron Works placed an order for 15,000 tons in 1915 and the Arsenal at Osaka in the same year accepted a tender for Penhsihu iron.

Copper

The chief copper deposits of China are those of Yunnan, Szechuan, Anhui, and Kansu. Copper being an important medium of currency, its mining has always been rigorously controlled by the Government. A considerable quantity of copper is now imported to supply the country's needs. Present production about 2000 tons annually.

1. *Tungchuan Mines, Yunnan.* Yunnan Province is one of the richest copper districts in the world. Copper has been worked there since the seventeenth century, the official records dealing with the Tangdan mine (near the Hsia river, district of Shiangpailing or Tungchuan) dating back to 1697. In 1738 a monopoly was established ; capital to work the mines had to be advanced by the Government, and all copper mined had to be sold to the State. The quantity of copper to be sent from Yunnan to Peking was fixed ; the surplus was at the disposal of the provincial authorities. Between 1738 and 1858 Mr. V. K. Ting, Director of the Geological Survey, states, on the evidence ot the records, the annual production of the Tungchuan or Shiangpailing mines never fell below 4,500 metric tons, and on two occasions amounted to 9,000 tons. The Mohammedan Rebellion (1858) stopped all mining in Yunnan. The copper mines began to revive slowly from 1874, and from 1888 to 1906 were worked by a semi-official company. In 1907 they reverted to the provincial Government, but the output remains under 1000 metric tons annually. Five groups of mines are included in the Tungchuan (or Shiangpailing) area—Tangdan, Loshue, Tasui, Moulu (all four between the Upper Yangtze and Hsia rivers), and Tiechang (on the north side of the Yangtze). Director-General of the Tungchuan Mines, Sung Lienkuei.

2. *Government smelting works at Yaokai, Kansu,* 70 miles west of Lanchow, have been established to deal with copper ore mined in the Tsinyuan district. Machinery of American and British make. Works in charge of British engineer, who has four Belgian and Spanish assistants. Plant said to be capable of turning out 4 tons of copper in 24 hours from 7½ per cent of ores.

A modern gold-milling plant (British) has been erected at the same place. A tubular boiler and pump were ordered in Germany.

3. *Government mines at Ch'anq Pailing,* Kanchow prefecture of Kiangsi province. Have been worked for many years by native methods. Inspected by German engineer in 1908, who reported very favourably both as to quantity and quality of ore. Samples were obtained containing as much as 40 per cent of copper.

4. *Government mines at Pai Shui Ho,* Penghsien district, Szechuan province.

Three Japanese assayists engaged and a smelting furnace purchased, September, 1910.

5. *Government mines in Huilichow,* Ningyuan prefecture, Szechuan province.

Red and white copper, worked by native methods. These mines are the chief source of supply for the province of Szechuan.

Price of red copper slabs at Chengtu, 0·38 taels (11d.) per catty (1⅓ lb.) ; white copper, 0·70 taels (1s. 9d.) per catty.

6. *Ching Hua Mining Co.* Mines in Nanchang district, Hupeh. Capital $100,000. Modern foreign equipment.

OTHER MINERALS

Gold

Alluvial gold is found in Northern Manchuria, along the Amur. Sungari, Tumen, Urga and Nonni rivers, and is recovered by primitive washing methods. It is worked in ten localities, and known to exist in about forty others in the province of Fengtien.

Several veins of gold are worked in Chihli province, and there are also numerous placers in this province, the total annual output being estimated by Hoover at $1,000,000.

The best-known gold mine in China is that of Chou Yuen, about 40 miles south-west of Chefoo. These and other mines in Shantung have, however, been closed by order of the Government, although a certain amount of work goes on quietly in the province. The chief gold mine in Hunan is at Pingkiang, north-east of Changsha. Yield, approximately, 1500 ounces per annum.

Gold is also found on the border of Kansu and Tibet, and a modern milling plant is being erected in this district.

In the Marches (Western Szechuan), where gold, quartz and alluvial is worked by the natives, an unsuccessful attempt was made to run the industry for the benefit of the provincial Government. It has now reverted to private exploiters, who pay a tax for permission to engage in the work. In the British Consular Report for Tachienlu (1914) a list of 12 mines is given employing 1440 men, which pay altogether an annual tax of £2178. The value of the total output of the Marches has been estimated at £45,000 annually.

The most important mine in Szechuan is said to be at Maha, 50 miles north-west of Ningyuanfu (South-West Szechuan). Owing to the revolutionary disturbances not much work has been done, but several large and productive veins have been found. Two Chinese engineers are in charge of the property, and 1200 men are employed. Machinery was to be purchased in America. More than £2000 worth of gold already obtained.

In many other provinces gold deposits are known to exist, and some are being worked at the present day, but Mr. Read considers that with the exception of Manchuria and Yunnan and Szechuan the gold-mining industry gives little promise of growth. Out of 700 streams examined in the last two provinces in 1911 to 1913 gold was found in 430, but in no case in sufficient quantity to pay for working. The total annual production of gold in China is in the neighbourhood of 200,000 oz., of which 120,000 oz. are from Manchuria and 60,000 from Outer Mongolia.

Silver

Although silver is the principal medium of currency in China the annual production probably does not exceed 50,000 oz. The best-known mines are those in the neighbourhood of Jehol (Chihli), which were exploited, unsuccessfully, under the direction of foreign engineers, when Li Hung-chang was Viceroy of the province. Extensive exploration and development work is now planned by a Chinese company in Kuangsi.

Silver is widely distributed in Yunnan, Szechuan, Kueichow, and Kuangtung in the form, mainly, of argentiferous galena. It is found in Yunnan in the districts of Tungchuan, Tali (in conjunction with arsenic and zinc), Likiang (in conjunction with copper), Lopingchow (as horn silver), Talangting, and generally in the south and south-eastern portions of the province as galena; in Kuangsi at Kueihsien and Yungning; in Kueichow between Weining and Talingfu on the western border, and in the western and north-western portions of Kuangtung. In Szechuan it is found as zincblend in Hueilichow, in the extreme south of the province.

San Ch'a (*Shansha*) *Mines*, near Kueihsien, Kuangsi province. Foreign machinery; Chinese management. Some of the deposits have been worked for 150 years; but the deeper deposits have not been touched.

Quicksilver

Cinnabar (sulphide of mercury) is found in Western and Northern Yunnan, in the beds of streams entering the Salween, Mekong, and Yangtze rivers; in Western Kueichow, Singyifu district, and Yuanshankiang, in the south-western portion of Szechuan, near the Yalung, and in Hunan at Fenghuangting and Kueichow. The largest cinnabar mines are at Yuanshankiang, 15 miles from Lungchikow, in Kueichow province. A concession to work these mines was acquired by a syndicate called the Anglo-French Quicksilver and Mining Concession (Kueichow province) of China, Limited, in 1898, but owing to difficulties with the Chinese authorities the development of the properties, which include iron-smelting works at Tsingki, Eastern Kueichow, and various mining rights in the same province, has been slow.

London office of company—54 New Broad Street, E.C.

Samples of the Yuanshanchiang ore assayed by an expert give a maximum of 4·4 per cent mercury and a minimum of 1·7 per cent; average of assays 2·78 per cent mercury.

The bulk of the 456,300 lb. of mercury produced in 1915 came from Kueichow.

Tin

China furnishes about five per cent of the total production of tin of the world. The Mengtze district, in Yunnan, supplies some 90 per cent of the tin exported from China. The trade is entirely in the hands of Chinese merchants. Production in 1915 amounted to nearly 8000 tons.

1. *The Kochiu mines*, 20 miles from Mengtze, Yunnan province. Worked by native methods; 30,000 men employed; 4216 tons, valued at £512,987, exported in 1909; 6148 tons, valued at £806,742, in 1910; 6690 tons, valued at £837,442, in 1911; 8234 tons in 1912; 7636 tons in 1913; 6681 tons in 1914.

The mineral is worked on the tributary system. The crude tin, smelted in small open furnaces and containing from 90 to 92 per cent pure tin, was sent to Hongkong, where a German refinery, erected in 1911, brought it up to the 90 per cent standard. A Chinese company formed by Kochiu landholders and the Yunnan Government erected near the mines a German refinery plant in 1913 capable of refining 50 tons of standard tin a day; but having exhausted its funds in installing the machinery in an unsuitable spot, the company has experienced difficulty in obtaining the necessary supply of ore to keep the plant in running order.

Note.—The above mines were included in a concession granted to the Yunnan Syndicate, Limited.

The syndicate, in 1907, transferred their mining rights in the district of Lingan (in which the Kochiu mines are situated) to a French company entitled Société d'Exploitation de Ling Ngan, but foreigners are excluded from participation in the tin industry, and only in 1912 were restrictions on the direct purchase of tin by them removed.

2. *Ho Yuan mines* (Chinese), at Hohsien, near the eastern frontier of Kuangsi. A few hundred tons of rough slabs produced annually, containing from 95 to 97 per cent tin.

3. *Fuchuan mines*, in Eastern Kuangsi. Tin has been worked here for fifty years. In 1910 the Provincial Government took over the workings. Output about 100 tons annually.

4. *Niutsongling mines*, near Nodoa (Tamchow department of Hainan). Owned by the Singapore Merchants Pioneer Company, Limited, formed in 1908. "A fairly rich stanniferous lode has been struck, the ore from which is expected to average 60 per cent per ton."

Antimony

China is the largest producer of antimony in the world, the chief centre of production being the Iyang district in Hunan. Antimony ores are found widely distributed throughout Yunnan, Western Szechuan, Kueichow, and Kuangsi, as well as in Upper Burmah. Stibnite is the chief ore. In this form it is found in Yunnan at Likiang, Talifu, Pingyi, and Tungchuan; in Kuangsi at Fengyi and Penchow. Antimony works (French machinery) were erected by a Chinese company at Chihtsun, north of Mengtze, on the Yunnan railway. Present capacity 2 tons a day. Export in 1914, 8550 cwt.

The total production of antimony in China in 1915 for the first time exceeded 20,000 tons.

1. *Pao Hua Company's mines* (Chinese), in Kuangnan and Kaihua (Eastern Yunnan). Permit to work granted 1909.

2. *Szecheng mines*, at Szecheng, in Western Kuangsi. Ore sent to refining works established at Wuchow in 1905. Distance of mines from works and cost of transport have militated against the success of the undertaking, but since the works were taken over from the Government by a private company the export of antimony, regulus and refined from Wuchow has risen from 381 cwt. (£710) in 1910 to 7125 cwt. (£12,380) in 1911, and 4623 cwt. (£8,878) in 1912. The exports of the ore for the same years were 1314 cwt. (£667), 952 cwt. (£254), and

1080 cwt. (£692). In 1913 and 1914 the Wuchow smelting works remained idle.

3. The Hunan mines, in three districts of Hunan province :—(1) *Central:* Changteh, Anhua, Sinhua, Paoking and Changsha. (2) *Southern:* Hengchow, Yungchow and Chenchow. (3) *Western:* Yungshun, Fenghuang, Yuanchow and Shenchow. "The ore produced in the vicinity of Sinhua and Anhua is the richest, attaining a fineness of over 70 per cent of stibnite."

The Hua Chang Antimony Refining Company, of Changsha, introduced additional plant from Great Britain in 1911, and raised its possible output from 100 tons of regulus a month to 300 tons. The capital of the company was raised at the same time from 300,000 to 600,000 Changsha taels (£38,000 to £75,000). The company holds a monopoly of antimony refining in Hunan, and early in 1911 the Imperial Government agreed to allow it for five years to pay duty on its regulus as if it were crude.

The export of antimony from Changsha was in cwt. :—

	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
	tons.	tons.	tons.	tons.	tons.
Regulus .	2,106	2,735	5,812	6,328	13,218
Crude .	6,914	9,816	14,728	12,731	19,047
Ore .	4,169	4,672	906	269	90
Ash .	6,283	2,553	4,952	12,461	327

Note.—The districts above referred to also produce iron, lead, zinc, tin, copper, sulphur, realgar and manganese.

Orpiment

(arsenic trisulphide) is obtained from mines near Chaochow and Menghua, in the Tali prefecture of Yunnan province. At Chaochow the industry employs about 800 people. The price obtained at the mines for clear yellow orpiment is Tls. 4 per 260 lb., and the cost at Bhamo, where the total output is shipped, amounts to £20 per ton.

Export through the Chinese Maritime Customs at Tengyueh, sent principally to Burma, rose from 8764 cwt., valued at £8627, in 1909, to 10,710 cwt., valued at £10,795, in 1910, but fell in 1911, mainly owing to the Revolution, to 6540 cwt. (£4756), and in 1912 to 5383 cwt. (£4447). Export in 1913, 5385 cwt. ; in 1914, 2625 cwt.

Petroleum Oil

is found in Shansi, Shensi, Kansu, Szechuan, and Chihli. Oil is produced and refined by native methods at Tseliutsing, north of Suifu, Szechuan. At Yenchang are oil wells worked with rudimentary machinery under Japanese supervision. A Chinese company has erected a refinery near Yenchang, and is now competing with foreign companies in Shensi. An arrangement was made in February, 1914, between the Standard Oil Company and the Chinese Government for the exploitation of the oil resources of Chihli and Shensi. The Government was to receive 37½ per cent of the stock of the Sino-American company formed to exploit the concession. The Standard Oil Co.'s options expired in February, 1915, without being taken up, the reason given being that the oil prospects in the two provinces were of doubtful value. In the course of the negotiations that followed the Company proposed to the Chinese Government the formation of a joint company (in which the Standard Oil Co. would have a controlling interest) having the right to explore all China and register exclusive claims in selected localities. The company further to monopolise the refining and transportation of all crude oil produced, and the Standard Oil Co. to have the monopoly of marketing the refined article for a given period. This proposal was rejected by the Chinese Government.

Asbestos

In a recent report the United States Consul at Antung states that valuable deposits of asbestos have been found in the vicinity of Kwantien, a small town about 45 miles north-east of Antung. The product appears to be of good quality. The price at Antung is about 2s. 6d. per lb., but as the mining is done in a desultory and primitive manner, the cost could probably be greatly reduced by using modern machinery and up-to-date methods. There are three mines now in operation, each employing about 30 workers, who, however, are mostly farmers devoting their spare time to gathering the asbestos, which lies near the surface, by means of hammers and chisels. Most of the asbestos mined has been shipped to Northern Manchuria. Asbestos is also found in the region to the east and south-east of the Pingyihsien in Kueichow, and to the east of Padaho in Kuangsi. It occurs irregularly in pockets ; no regular mining operations are carried out, and the staple is too short to make the asbestos valuable. (A. J. Moore-Bennett, in the *Far Eastern Review.*) Valuable deposits are reported to have been found recently near Pachow, Szechuan.

Lead

The most important lead deposits are those of Hunan, Kueichow, Szechuan and Yunnan. A large portion of the domestic production is exported, but considerable quantities are also smelted at Wuchang. The chief mine in Hunan is at Shuikouchan, S.W. of Hangchowfu. In 1914 the output of lead was nearly 4,000 tons, and of zinc 12,597 tons. A German firm, in virtue of an advance of Tls. 1,000,000 made in 1912, has a monopoly of the output of this mine for a certain number of years. A United States Consular Report speaks of the potentialities of Manchuria as a lead-producing centre. The ore appears in both quartz and limestone formations ; width of veins seen vary from 1 to 5 feet. Owing to the stoppage of Australia's lead exports during the war, China was in danger of being unable to meet her requirements in the matter of lead.

Zinc

In addition to the Hunan mine mentioned above, spelter or zinc is found widely distributed in Kueichow, Yunnan and Szechuan, the chief centres, with approximate annual output in metric tons being as follow:—In Kueichow, Weiningchow (150), Minchiu, (40); in Yunnan, Tungchuan (320), Likiang (100); in Szechuan, Hueilichow (140). Outcrops of zinc ores occur in Kuangsi, but are not worked.

Nickel

Nickel is found principally in Yunnan and Szechuan, but is never produced separately.

Molybdenum

Molybdenum ore (molybdenite or sulphate of molybdenum) is now mined in South China and exported from Hongkong to Great Britain and France, and to Canada for concentration to be re-exported subsequently to Great Britain. The industry promises to undergo considerable development.

Mica

Mica is found near Sungpan, N. Szechuan, and is available for export; the price quoted at Shanghai being about 5d. per lb.

Tungsten (Wolframite)

Tungsten is found in Hongkong "New Territory." Six outcrops of tungsten bearing ore have been located; of these three are more or less developed, and produce ore running as high as 18 per cent of tungsten. The veins are said to be from 10 to 18 inches thick. Another source is in Fukien province, in the districts of Haifeng, Lufeng, P'uning, Kityang and Wuhua. Chiulung and Holung, together with other villages about Tunglinghsia, constitute the chief centre of production, which occupies an area of from 6 to 7 square miles. In 1917 wolfram ore was discovered in the neighbourhood of Swabue, half-way between Hongkong and Swatow, and attracted thousand of diggers to the spot.

Tungsten is also found in the hills to the south and south-east of Puerhfu, in the district of Chenpienting, S.W. Yunnan, where it is washed out by the natives in their search for gold and tin.

MINERALS IN CHINA

The following is a list of the minerals known to exist in China Proper and Turkestan, with the principal places of production:—

(*a*) Kansu province.—Coal (Kungchangfu); iron, gold, silver, copper (Yaokai); petroleum.

(*b*) Shensi province.—Coal and iron (Sianfu); salt, gold, nickel, magnetite, marble and porphyry, petroleum (Yenchang).

(*c*) Shansi province.—Coal and iron (Taiyüanfu, Pingtingchow, Tsechow); salt.

(*d*) Honan Province.—Coal and iron (Tsinghuachen, Lushanhsien and Juchow); tin and argentiferous lead ore.

(*e*) Chihli province.—Coal (Western Hills, Peking, Kaiping, Lanchow etc.); kaolin and sandstone, gold (Jehol).

(*f*) Shantung province.—Coal (Weihsien, Poshan and Ichowfu); iron (Kiulingchen); copper, argentiferous lead ore, gold (Chaoyüan, Pingtu and Weihaiwei); diamonds, gypsum, clay and sandstone.

(*g*) Szechuan province.—Salt (Tzulinching, Chiating and Paoning); coal and iron (Kuanhsien, Weiyuan, Chienwei, Ch'ichiang, Pahsien, Chiangpeiting); copper (Ningyun); white copper (Huilichow); silver, gold, petroleum (Pahsien and Wanhsien); lead, antimony, sulphur, saltpetre, gypsum, jade, mica.

(*h*) Hupeh province.—Coal (K'ueichow, Wuchang, Hsiangyangfu); iron and zinc, gypsum (Yingcheng); copper (Chienshih).

(*i*) Hunan province.—Coal (Siangtan and valley of Hsiang River); gold (Huitung) (Mopin); silver, iron (Anhua and Paoking); copper, lead (Changning and Chiyang); zinc, antimony (Anhua, Sinhua, Shaoyang and Shenchow); sulphur (Tzuli); realgar.

(*j*) Kiangsi province.—Coal (Pinghsiang and Lohpinghsien); kaolin, copper (Kanchow).

(*k*) Anhui province.—Coal (Ningkuofu and Chihchow); iron (Hoshan); copper (Tungkuanshan); lead.

(*l*) Kiangsu province.—Coal, iron, marble, plumbago (Kaotze, Chinkiang).

(*m*) Yunnan province.—Copper (Tungchuan and Chaotungfu); zinc, lead, tin (Kochiu); orpiment, coal (Talifu); salt, gold, gypsum, jade.

(*n*) Kueichow province.—Quicksilver (Pehmatung, Wuchuanhsien, Singyifu); iron, coal, copper, zinc, sulphur, marble.

(*o*) Kuangsi province.—Antimony (Szecheng); coal (Hohsien, Nanning and Yungan); gold, silver, iron (Kuanyang); lead (Fuchuan).

(*p*) Kuangtung province.—Coal (Shaochoufu, Huahsien); iron, copper, lead, silver, tin, gold (Ch'inchow).

(*q*) Fukien province.—Coal, lead, tin, gold, silver, iron (Kutien) tungsten.

(*r*) Chekiang province.—Coal (Chuchowfu); lime, gypsum, alum (Pingyang); building stone.

(*s*) Manchuria.—Gold (valley of Amur River); coal (Liaoyang, Fushun, Yentai); iron (Tiehling); silver, copper, lead, asbestos, soda.

(*t*) Sinkiang (New Dominion or Chinese Turkestan).—Gold, lead, coal (Turfan): sulphur, saltpetre, alum, petroleum, jade.

DRAFT MINING REGULATIONS

The new Mining Regulations were published in the 1914 Year Book· The preamble stated that "the industrial enterprises of China are still in their infancy, and the inclination of the people to launch into industrial enterprises has not yet been developed. . . . Therefore it is inevitable that foreign capital should be introduced. But as the nation has been so weak it is feared that many interests and privileges will be lost. Consequently in the question of development by foreign means there should be restrictions. Should there be foreign shares, they should not exceed 40 per cent of the total amount of the capital." Owing partly to this restriction the Regulations were regarded as unsatisfactory.

CHAPTER VIII

MONEY, WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

IN theory China uses decimal notation with a few exceptions; in actual practice its system of money, weights and measures is in a chaotic state, the standards varying not only in the different provinces, but also in the same town and in the same shop in regard to different articles.[1]

MONEY

A fuller statement of Chinese moneys is given in the chapter on Finance under the heading "Currency."

The theoretical tables are:—

10 Hao = 1 Cash (*Li*).
10 Cash = 1 Candareen (*Fên*).
10 Candareen = 1 Mace (*Tsien*).
10 Mace = 1 Tael (*Liang*).

10 Cash = 1 Cent.
100 Cents = 1 Dollar.

Cash (the monetary unit of the country—a copper coin with a square hole in the middle) are strung on strings, in rolls of 100, of which 10 go to the string or *tiao*, or *chuan* (*kuan*). In actual tender these "strings" are subjected to deductions to cover the cost of stringing, with the result that a *tiao* may contain from 960 to 990 cash only. The following description[2] of the local currency in one part of Hupeh will illustrate financial conditions in China, for what is there written of the cash illustrates, *mutatis mutandis*, the condition of the tael, dollar and subsidiary coinage generally:—

"Wusueh, Hupeh, May 1, 1906.

"This particular part of the Hupeh province has long been distinguished for its variety of rates of exchange. A nominal 100 cash has for a long time been worth 97 in actual cash at Wusueh, 98 at Lungping 10 miles away, 97 or 98 in different classes of transactions at Hsingkuo 90 miles away, and 99 at Chichou the same distance away in another direction. To complicate matters, the only cash bills which are popular are issued by a Wusueh bank and are current in all these towns, but not at face value. At Wusueh a bill equals 1000 cash, at Lungping one has to give 10 cash and a bill for a thousand, at Chichou one must add 20 cash to the bill. When the copper 10-cash pieces became current (and the only currency, for cash is not now to be had at the banks), the banks had to settle all these monetary problems afresh. At the mint the copper pieces are sold at 98, i.e. 100 copper pieces equal 1000 cash, reckoned at 98 to the 100, so that when paying 100 cash one pays 10 pieces, but when paying 99 or 98 cash one also pays 10 pieces. At Chichou the banks decided to issue 100 copper pieces for a cash bill, thus saving money on the transaction, as they bought the pieces at Wuchang at 98 and paid them out instead of 1000 copper cash at 99. At Lungping they had to be content without gains. At Wusueh the banks pondered, for if they bought the copper pieces at 98 and then gave 100 for a bill in a place where the rate was 97, they would lose 10 cash on each 100. They therefore decided to take 1 coin out of each packet they got from the mint. Had they stopped here, all would have gone smoothly, for the shopkeepers would have deducted 1 cash from each 10 copper pieces which they paid out, and no one would have lost anything. But old-time custom has allowed the banks to charge 2 cash for the piece of string on which the cash was threaded, and the banks did not like to yield this squeeze, so they proceeded to take a second copper piece out of each packet from the mint and put 8 cash back, thus getting the 2 cash for the string which they no longer provided. Of course the shopkeepers objected, for they could not divide up 2 cash among 100 coins. If they allowed this deduction, the loss of the 2 cash must inevitably fall on the man who broke the parcel of copper pieces. The result was that the matter was referred to the officials, and after plea and counter-plea the shopkeepers have won, and by proclamation the rate in Wusueh from to-morrow will be 98 to the 100, so that the banks will hand over unbroken packets of copper coins.”

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[1] In his *Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire* (Longmans and Co., London), Mr. H. B. Morse discusses fully the vagaries of Chinese money, weights and measures.

[2] *North-China Daily News*, May 11, 1906.

In North China (Shantung and Chihli), as Mr. Morse points out,[1] 1 cash counts for 2. The price of an article being there quoted at 100 cash, you hand over 50 coins, at 2 *tiao* you give what in the south constitutes 1 *tiao*. The same rule of deduction holds here too, and the *tiao* nominally of 1000 and nominally-actually of 980 cash contains actually 490 coins. At Peking, too, the rule holds good, and the *tiao* nominally of 1000 cash, i.e. nominally of 100 and nominally-actually of 98 pieces of 10-cash, actually contains 49 pieces of 10-cash = 20 cash. In Manchuria the *tiao* consists of 160 ordinary (small) cash.

Exchange Values.—The exchange values between the more important kinds of Tael are as follows :—

100 Haikuan (or Customs) Taels = 101·642395 Kuping or Treasury Taels.
= 105·215 Tientsin Taels.
= 111·40 Shanghai Taels.
100 Kuping Taels = 109·60 Shanghai Taels.

Annual fluctuations in the Haikuan Taels are given in Chap. XI.

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[1] *Op. cit.*, p. 132.

Weights

A Weights and Measures Law was promulgated at the end of 1914, establishing a double system, one being the standard metric unit, the other based on the *ying tsao ch'ih* (builder's foot) for length and the Kuping tael (or *liang*) for weight. The Law contained provisions for the inspection of weights and measures, imposed fines for the use of untested or fraudulent measures, and sanctioned the establishment of a special plant for the manufacture of instruments of weight and measure in order to secure absolute uniformity.

The following are the units of length, area, capacity, and weight :—

Length : Ch'ih = ·32 metre = 1·049867 feet.
Area : Mow (6,000 sq. ch'ih) = ·06144 hectare = .15182 acre.
Capacity : Sheng = 10·354688 litres = 10·9416 liquid quarts or 2·7354 gallons.
Weight : Liang = 37·301 grammes = 1·31561 avoirdupois ounces.

The term "li" is used to express $\frac{1}{1000}$ ch'ih (and 1800 ch'ih), $\frac{1}{100}$ mow, and $\frac{1}{1000}$ liang.

The following tables are used :—

10 Li = 1 Fên (Candareen).
10 Fên = 1 Ch'ien (Mace).
10 Ch'ien = 1 Liang (Tael).
16 Liang = 1 Chin (Kin) or Catty.
100 Chin = 1 Tan or Picul.

For purposes of foreign trade these weights are fixed as follows :—

1 Liang = 583·3 grs. = $1\frac{1}{3}$ oz. av. = 37·783 grammes.
1 Catty = $1\frac{1}{3}$ lb. or 604·53 grammes.
1 Picul = $133\frac{1}{3}$ lb. or 60·453 kilogrammes.

In native trade the catty ranges from 12 to 42·5 ounces, and the number of catties to the picul will vary from 90 to 280.

Length

10 Fên = 1 Ts'un (inch).
10 Ts'un = 1 Ch'ih (foot).
10 Ch'ih = 1 Chang (Pu or Kung).
180 Chang = 1 Li.

For purposes of the foreign Customs trade the length of the Ch'ih is fixed as follows :—

1 Ch'ih = 14·1 inches or 0·358 metres.

A Li, theoretically 2115 feet or two-fifths of a mile, is usually taken as a third of a mile, as being nearer the theoretical distance that the word *li* conveys to the Chinese mind.

In actual practice a Chinese foot (*ch'ih*) varies from 8·6 to 27·8 inches.[1] The Chinese Commercial Guide gives 100 different values of the *ch'ih* as actually in use. Some of the "standard" lengths in various trades, etc. are as follows :—[1]

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[1] H. B. Morse, *op. cit.*, p. 173.

		Inches.
Carpenter's	*ch'ih*	= 11·14.
Mason's	,,	= 11·08 (10·9).
Artisan's	,,	= 12·569.
Board of Revenue's	,,	= 13·181.
Tailor's	,,	= 13·85–14·05.
Customs House	,,	= 14·098.
Junk Builder's	,,	= 15·769–15·69.

AREA

10 Ssu = 1 Hao.
10 Hao = 1 Li.
10 Li = 1 Fên.
10 Fên = 1 Mow.
100 Mow = 1 Ch'ing.

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25 Square Ch'ih = 1 Pu or Kung.
240 Pu = 1 Mow.
100 Mow = 1 Ch'ing.

The *mow* is regarded at Shanghai by custom as equivalent to one-sixth of an English acre (7260 sq. ft.), but it varies throughout China from 3840 square feet to 9964 square feet, with one standard of 18,148 square feet.

CAPACITY

10 Ko = 1 Sheng.
10 Sheng = 1 Tow.
10 Tow = 1 Shih.

"Measures of capacity are seldom used except for rice and grain, and these are ordinarily sold wholesale by weight; fluids, such as oil, spirits, molasses, etc., are almost invariably sold by weight. Grain tribute is assessed on the tax note by measures of capacity, but is generally collected by weight at a rate of conversion fixed by the collectors, when it is not collected in money at rates also fixed by the collectors. The tow for tribute contains 629 cubic inches (10·31 litres), but in different parts of the Empire different standards of tow exist, ranging from 176 all the way to 1800 cubic inches" (Morse [3]).

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[1] T. R. Jernigan, *China's Business Methods and Policy.* T. Fisher Unwin, London.

[2] H. B. Morse, *op. cit*, p. 174.

[3] *Op. cit.*, p. 172.

CHAPTER IX

MANUFACTURES

IT is not yet possible to compile an exhaustive list of China's manufactures. In addition to peasant industries, to which reference has been made in a previous chapter, each year sees an increase in the number of factories established for the purpose of catering for a market outside the local trade. A list of the more important trades is given below, with the factories, etc., known to be in operation.

This list cannot claim to be exhaustive. It has been compiled under considerable difficulty, and the editors will welcome any additions or corrections for future issues of the Year Book.

In the list are not included certain industries with which the name of China is particularly associated, such as porcelain and earthenware, which are manufactured in large quantities at various centres, the most famous being the Imperial Potteries at Kingtehchen,[1] Kiangsi ; the lacquer-ware and *objets d'art* of Foochow, Canton and Fatshan ; the cloisonné and enamel of Peking, Weihaiwei, etc. ; the carpets and rugs of North China ;[2] the fireworks of Kuangtung province ; the mats and matting of the Canton delta and Ningpo district ; the palm-leaf fans of South China.[3]

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[1] Kingtehchen, situated on the left bank of the Peiho, is entirely given over to the pottery industry. There are 104 kilns in the town, of which about 30 work all the year round ; the majority work for a short season only every summer, when each kiln will employ on an average from 100 to 200 men, apart from the men, women, and children engaged in designing, moulding, painting, or distributing pottery. The value of the trade is estimated at £50,000 a year.

[2] The carpet industry received a considerable stimulus during the Great War owing to the export of Turkish rugs being at a standstill, and the shipment of Persian and Turkestan rugs being restricted. "Tientsin carpet" is a generic term applied to carpets which originally were not made in Tientsin, but in a number of cities on the Mongol border. Even now the best carpets are produced outside Tientsin. Those of Ninghsia enjoy the highest reputation, with Peking carpets as second best. Other cities prominent in the industry besides Tientsin are Hami, Kashgar, Khotan, Kuchar, and Salachi.

[3] The common fans are the leaf and stem of the *Livistonia chinensis*, or ordinary small palm, which grows wild in most districts of South China, but is cultivated for the fan trade mainly in the San Hui district in the Pearl River delta. The leaves are sun dried and sulphur bleached.

LIST OF FACTORIES, ETC.

ALBUMEN FACTORIES (*see also* EGG FACTORIES)

Seven factories in Hankow, of which two are British, three German, one Belgian, and one French.

Columbia Factory	Tsingtao
Karl Ebers' Factory	„
T'ung Yu Albumen Factory	Yangchow (Kiangsu)

One factory in Chinkiang (c/o Foo Chong and Co.), one at Foochow

ARSENALS

There are Government arsenals at—

Canton
Chengtu
Foochow
Hangchow
Hanyang (Hankow)
Kaifengfu
Lanchowfu
Nanking
Shanghai (Kiangnan)
Sianfu
Taiyuanfu
Te'chow (Tientsin)
Tsinanfu
Urumtsi
Yunnanfu

CANNING FACTORIES

Amoy Tinning Factory	Amoy
A Chinese Cannery at	Kiungchow
Tarfoong Canned Goods Co.	Shanghai
Sin Ki Chan	Amoy
Several Canneries at	Swatow, Hongkong, and Foochow

CEMENT AND BRICK WORKS

Butler Cement and Tile Works, Ltd.	Shanghai
Canton Government Brick and Cement Works	Canton
Chee Hsin Company's Cement and Brick Works	Tongshan
Chinese Cement Factory	Canton
Chinese Eastern Railway Brick Works (Russian)	Harbin
Choushintze Brick Works (near)	Dairen
H. Diederichsen and Co. Brick Works	Tsingtao
Green Island Cement Co. (Shewan, Tomes and Co.)	Macao and Hongkong
Hankow Brick and Tile Works (E. C. Fechner)	Hankow
Hong Tsai Co.'s Mosaic Tile Works	Hongkong
Hua Chi Hupeh Cement Works	Tayeh
Kailan Mining Administration (Bricks and Tiles)	Tongshan
Li Long Porcelain Works	Changsha
Wuhu Brick Works	Wuhu
Yü Yik Brick Factory (capacity 40,000 bricks per day)	Canton

There are altogether 42 brickfields in Liaotung.

CHEMICAL WORKS

Electro-chemical Industry Co. (of Tokio)	Fushun (Manchuria)
Government Powder Factory and Chemical Works	Hanyang
Kiangsu Chemical Works (Burkill and Co.)	Shanghai

CONFECTIONERY MANUFACTURERS

Gurtchenko and Kisloff (Russian)	Harbin
H. Mekler and Co. (Russian)	"
Ravitcher and Co. (Russian)	"

COTTON SPINNING AND WEAVING WORKS

Anglo-Chinese Cotton Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Ai Kou Weaving Mill	Newchang
Chee Dong	Taitsang (Taichong)
Chee Tah Cotton Spinning Co.	Taitsang (Taichong)
Cheng Feng Cotton Weaving Co.	Haichow
Cheng Fa (Cotton) Weaving Co.	Cheng Hsi (Swatow)
Chia Chu Kun Yi Tsun Cotton and Weaving Mill	Kongmoon
China and Foreign Knitting Co.	Hongkong
Chiu Zung Cotton Mill	Shanghai
Cotton Spinning Co. (capital, Tls. 100,000)	Changsha
Cotton Spinning and Weaving Factory	Chi Mo Hsien
Cotton Weaving Mill (Japanese)	Liaoyang.
Doh Sun Cotton Spinning Co.	Tungchow
Dong Ching Cotton Mill	Shanghai
Ewo Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	"
Fu Kang Cloth Weaving Co.	Nanking
Heng Chang Yuan Cotton Mill	Shanghai
Heng Feng Cotton Manufacturing Co.	"
Hongkong Cotton Spinning, Weaving and Dyeing Co.	Hongkong
Hsin Ta Sheng	Tungchow
Hsing Yeh Cotton Weaving Co.	Wuchang
Hua Hsing Cotton Mill	Tientsin
Hung Yue Cotton Mill	Shanghai
Hupeh Government Cotton Spinning Mill	Changsha
Hupeh Government Cotton Weaving Mill	Wuchang
International Cotton Manufacturing Co., Ltd.	Shanghai (Pootung)
Kian Houat Cotton Weaving Co.	Tinghai (Swatow)
Kuang Hsian Weaving Factory	Tikhoi (Kongmoon)
Kung Yik Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	Shanghai (Jessfield)
Kwang Yü Spinning Mill	Changtefu
Laokungmao Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Laou Wah Sung Cotton Spinning Co.	Tungchow

Lee Yong Cotton Spinning Co.	Kiangying
Lien Ma Chi Sha Chi Chao Weaving Mill, Ltd.	Kowkong (Kongmoon)
Nagai Wata Co.'s Spinning Mill	Shanghai
Oriental Cotton Manufacturing Co.	,,
San Sing Cotton Mill	,,
Shanghai Cotton Manufacturing Co. (M. B. K.)	,,
Sing Wah Sung Cotton Spinning Co.	Tsungming
Soo Long Cotton Spinning Co.	Soochow
Sun Hsing Cotton Weaving Co.	Shanghai
Ta Sheng Yarn Factory	Tungchow
Tai Wai	Hankow
Teh Dah Cotton Mill	Shanghai
Tong Wai Kong Cotton Spinning Co.	Shaoshing
Tong Yih Kong Cotton Spinning Co.	Hangchow
Tong Yue (Yu Tung) Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Tsing Shing Cotton Spinning Co.	Wusieh
Tung Chiu Yuan Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co.	Ningpo
Wei Sun Knitting Co.	Hongkong
Whangpoa Joint Stock Weaving Co.	Canton
Wo Fung Cotton Spinning Co., Ltd.	Ningpo
Yangtzepoo Cotton Manufacuring Co.	Shanghai
Ya Tung Cotton Weaving Co.	Canton
Yih Ching Cotton Spinning Co.	Wusieh
Yu Feng Cotton Weaving Co.	Haichow and Kanyu
Yu Shing Cotton Spinning Co.	Changchow
Yu Sin Weaving Co.	Wuchow
Yu Yuan Cotton Spinning Co., Ltd.	Shanghai

Distilleries, Breweries and Aerated Water Factories[1]

1. *Distilleries.*

Effimoff, A. N. (Russian), Vodka	Harbin
Fried, S. J. (Russian), Vodka	,,
Godib and Co. (Austrian), Vodka	,,
Kameieff (Russian), Vodka	Buhedu (336 miles W. of Harbin
Kann, P. M. (Russian), Vodka	Harbin
Kolendo and Mordohovitch (Russian), Vodka	Khandashedtzu (170 miles E. of Harbin)
Kotzoeff, F. A. (Russian), Vodka	Mulin (268 miles E. of Harbin)
Kouznetzoff, S. A. (Russian), Vodka	

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[1] The Russian and German factories named were operating before the Great War.

2. *Breweries.*

Degtrar and Co. (Russian)	Harbin
Enkevitch S. (Russian)	Khandashetzu (170 miles E. of Harbin)
Dai Nippon Brewery Co.	Tsingtao
Imianpo Brewing Co. (Russian)	Imianpo (101 miles E. of Harbin)
Kotelnikoff, I. (Russian)	Manchouli
Mezdunaridnoe Pivovarnoe Kompanie	Harbin
Newmann and Co. (German), Ltd.	„
Oriental Brewery Co.	Hongkong
Plustdranko and Co. (Russian)	Harbin
Poddany and Co. (Austrian)	„
Popoff Bros. (Russian)	Fuliardi (176 miles W. of Harbin)
Ternvandt, P. „	Manchouli
Union Brauerei (German)	Shanghai
"Vostotchnaia Bavaria" (Erml Bros.)	Harbin
Yannow and Co.	„

3. *Aerated Water Manufacturers, etc.*

Aerated Water Factory	Newchwang
Aquarius Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Betines, S. J., and Co.	Peking
Canton Aerated Water and Distilling Co.	Canton
Chang Yu Pioneer Wine Co. (with bottle factory)	Chefoo
Connaught Aerated Water Factory	Hongkong
Crystal, Ltd.	(Factory at Shanhaikuan), Tientsin
Hankow Dispensary, Ltd.	Hankow
Iltis Brunnen	Tsingtao
Kavkazky Zavodi Mineralnich Vod.	Harbin
Mackie, Alex., and Co.	Tientsin
Morozoff and Co.	Harbin
Niagara Aerated Water Factory	Hankow
Royal Aerated Water Factory	Hongkong
Soldinenie Zavodie Mineralnich Vod.	Harbin
Starlight Aerated Water Co.	Tientsin
Swatow Aerated Water Co.	Swatow
Tientsin International Mineral Water Co.	(Factories at Tientsin, Shanhaikuan)
Victoria Dispensary	Hongkong
Watkins, Ltd.	„
Watson, A. S., and Co.	(Factories at Shanghai, Hongkong, Amoy, and Canton)

DOCKS, SHIPBUILDING AND ENGINEERING WORKS

Amoy Shipway and Engineering Co.[1]	Amoy
Bailey, W. S., and Co., Ltd.	Hongkong
Chinese Government Arsenal and Dockyard	Foochow
Chinese Government Dockyard	Whampoa
Dairen Dry Dock (Kawasaki Dockyard Co.)	Dairen
Hankow Iron and Engine Works	Hankow
Hongkong and Whampoa Dock Co., Ltd.	Hongkong
Kiangnan Dock and Engineering Works (Chinese Government)	Shanghai
Kwong Kip Loong	Hongkong
Macdonald and Co.	"
New Amoy Dock, Ltd.	Amoy
New Engineering and Shipbuilding Works	Shanghai
Nicholas Tsú's Engineering and Shipbuilding Works	"
Oriental Engine Works	"
Shanghai Dock and Engineering Co., Ltd. (five docks)	"
Taikoo Dock and Engineering Co., Ltd. (Butterfield and Swire)	Hongkong
Taku Tug and Lighter Co., Ltd. (Taku)	Tientsin
Tientsin Ironworks	"
Tientsin Lighter Co.	Tongku (Tientsin)
Tsingtauer Werft (German Naval Dockyard)	Tsingtao
Ulderup and Schluter	Hongkong
Vulcan Ironworks, Ltd.	Shanghai
Yangtze Engineering Works	Hankow

EGG FACTORIES

Amos Bird Co.	Shanghai
Tuk Wo Egg Produce Factory	Yencheng (Honan)

ELECTRIC LIGHT WORKS

The following cities are supplied with electric light and current by Foreign and Chinese Electric Light and Power Companies, or have electric light schemes under consideration :—

Amoy
Anking
Antung
Canton
Changchow[2]
Changsha
Chantsuen
Chaochowfu (Swatow)
Chefoo
Chenningchow
Chengtu
Chingkiang
Chiohbe[2]
Chuanchow[2]
Chungking
Dairen
Fatshan (?)
Foochow

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[1] Sold to Chinese Government, 1918.

[2] Amoy District.

Hangchow
Hanyang
Hankow (4)
Harbin
Hoihow
Hongkong
Hsingning (Swatow)
Ichang
Kaifeng
Kailing
Kashing
Khandashedzu
Kingkiang
Kirin
Kiungchow
Kongmoon
Kowloon
Kulangsu
Luchow
Macao
Meihsien
Mengtze
Mukden
Nanchwang
Nanning
Nanking
Nanyang Iron Works
Newchwang
Ningpo
Peking
Pinghsiang Collieries
Sainam
Shanghai (3)
Shasi
Shekki Heungshan
Sheklung (?)
Shiuhing
Siantan
Soochow
Swatow
Tailang
Talifu
Tientsin
Tsinanfu
Tsingtao
Wuchang
Wuchow
Wuhu
Yangchow
Yunnanfu

There are 87 electrical undertakings in China (62 in China proper, 25 in Manchuria). Of these 80 are light or power services, or both combined, four are such services carried on in conjunction with electric railways, and three are concerned with the manufacture of electrical apparatus and supplies. It is estimated that the electric energy supplied for power and light amounts to 33,000 horse-power and 1,375,000 candle-power. Of the 87 enterprises, six are conducted by the Chinese Government, 53 by Chinese firms, and 28 as foreign undertakings (10 Japanese).

Flour Mills

A Flour Mill at	Changsha
Blagovestchensk Flour Milling Co. (A. F. Mostchtsky)	Harbin
Chang Shou Flour Mill	Chungking
China Flour Mill Co., Ltd. . . .	Shanghai
Chin Loong Flour Mill Co. . . .	Hankow
Eastern Flour Mill (Patushinshy and Drizen) .	Harbin
Fou Foong Flour Mill Co. . . .	Shanghai
First Manchurian Flour Milling Co. (Marker and Tchan Bo Yan)	Harbin
Fu Hsin Flour Mill Co. . . .	Tungchow
Fu Hsin Flour Mill No. 2 . . .	Shanghai
Germant's Flour Mill	Harbin
Gershgorin's Flour Mill	,,
Godai Flour Mill	Shanghai
Han Foong Flour Mills	Hankow
Hai Foong Roller Mill	Chefoo
Heng Fa Yu Flour Mill	Ashiho
Huo Foong and Hung Foong Flour Mills .	Hanyang
Imianpo Flour Milling Co. . . .	Imianpo (101 m. E. of Harbin)

Irkutsk Flour Milling Co. (Bonner and Mindalevitch)	Harbin
Kung Tai Flour Mills	Hankow
Lee Dah Flour Mill Co.	Shanghai
Lobachoff's Flour Mill	Harbin
Ma Si Gui Flour Mill	Hailin (209 m. E. of Harbin)
Mow Sing Flour Mill Co.	Wusieh
Russian Flour Milling Co.	Harbin
Russian Flour Milling Co.	Shuangch'engpu (32 m. S. of Harbin)
Semianikoff and Subotich's Flour Mill	Kuanchengtze
Shanghai Roller Flour Mill Co.	Shanghai
Skidelski's (L. S.) Flour Mill	Harbin
Southern Flour Milling Co.	Shuangch'engpu (32 m. S. of Harbin)
Tai Loy Flour Mills	Taichow (Chinkiang)
Tiehling Flour Mill	Tiehling
Tien Hsing Co.'s Flour Mill	I Lan Fu (Harbin)
Towa Co.'s Flour Mills	Hankow
Vitichnovsky's (V.) Flour Mill	Fuliardi (176 miles W. of Harbin)
Wuhu Flour Mill	Wuhu
Yuan Hsing Co.'s Flour Mill	Ninguta
Yu Hang Flour Mill	Kaoyu (Chinkiang)
Yu Hung Flour Mill Co.	Yangchow
Yun Feng Mo Mien Kungssu	Yunnanfu
Yung Feng Flour Mill Co.	Such'ien
Yu Shun Ho Flour Mill Co.	Hailin (209 m. E. of Harbin)

The total number of mills at Harbin is 19 and at Ninguta 4.

Furniture Factories

European-style furniture is made by numerous foreign and Chinese firms in almost every Treaty Port. The following are among the largest furniture manufacturers :—

Arts and Crafts, Ltd.	Shanghai
Hall and Holtz, Ltd.	Shanghai, Hankow, and Tientsin
Jacques and Co.	Peking and Tientsin
Koenig, H.	Shanghai
Taliti and Co.	Peking
Weeks and Co., Ltd.	Shanghai and Hankow

Furniture of foreign pattern is also made in most of the Government industrial schools in the provincial capitals and other large towns.

GAS WORKS

Antung Gas Co., Ltd.	Antung
Hongkong and China Gas Co., Ltd.	Hongkong
Shanghai Gas Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
South Manchurian Railway Co.	Dairen

GLASS AND PORCELAIN WORKS

Chinese Glass Factory (lamp chimneys) at	Foochow
,, ,,	Nanning
,, ,,	Kiungchow
Corousy and Co.'s Glass Factory	Hongkong
Fook Wai Co.'s Glass Works	,,
Fu Hui Glass Factory	Canton
Glass Bottle Factory	Changsha
Hsing Hua Glass Factory, Ltd.	Kirin
Ikebata Glass Works (Japanese)	Harbin
Imianpo Glass Works	Imianpo (101 m. E. of Harbin)
Kulungsu Glass Works	Amoy
Kwangkien Glass Factory	,,
Liukiatai Glass Factory	Liukiatai (near Chungking)
Ming Sun Glass Factory	Canton
Peking Glass Works	Peking
Poshan Glass Works	Poshan (Tsinanfu)
Vodiansky's (N. V.) Glass Works	Harbin
Yao Hsu Glass Factory	Suchien (Chinkiang), shut down

ICE AND COLD STORAGE FACTORIES

Crystal Ice Co. (G. Mutter)	Hankow
Foochow Ice and Aerated Water Co.	Foochow
Hankow Ice Works (W. H. Corsane, proprietor)	Hankow
Hongkong Ice Co., Ltd.[1]	Hongkong
International Export Co., Ltd.	Hankow
Kouznetzoff N. and I.	Harbin
Oriental Brewery Co.	Hongkong
Shanghai Ice, Cold Storage and Refrigeration Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Swatow Ice Co.	Swatow

IRON AND STEEL WORKS

Anshanchun Steel Mill	Anshanchun (Manchuria)
German Steel Works	Shantung
Hanyang Iron and Steel Works (Hanyehping Iron and Coal Co., Ltd.)	Hanyang
Hanyang Crucible Steel Factory	,,
Hongkong Steel Foundry Co	Hongkong

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[1] Incorporated in the Hongkong Dairy Farm Co.

KNITTING MILLS.

Likiang Knitting Factory	Swatow
Pioneer Knitting Mill	Shanghai

Several factories at Hongkong.

LEATHER FACTORIES (TANNERIES)

Canton Tannery and Leather Works	Canton
Government Leather Factory	Yunnanfu
" " "	Wuchang
" " "	Chengtu
Hongkong and China Shoe Factory (Law and Sons, successors)	Hongkong
Hongkong Tannery	Mongkoksui (Hongkong)
Hua Ching Leather Co.	Canton
Kung Hua Leather Manufacturing Co.	Shanghai
Shanghai Tannery Co., Ltd. (in liquidation, 1916)	"
Tannerie Franco-Chinoise	Tientsin
Tientsin Leather Factory	"
Vodiansky, N. V. (Leather Factory)	Harbin

There are several Chinese leather factories in Chengtu, Chungking, Nanning, and elsewhere, but the hides are not "tanned" according to Western methods.

MATCH FACTORIES

There are match factories at the following places :—

Canton (Sartsun Match Factory)
Changchun
Changsha
Chungking
Foochow
Hangchow (Kuang Hua Factory)
Hankow
Hongkong
Mukden
Mukden
Nanking
Ningpo (Cheng Ta Match Factory)
Shanghai
Peking (Tanfang Match Co.)[1]
Szechuan (7 working and 10 closed)
Tientsin (Huachang Match Co.)[1]
Tsinanfu (Chen Hua Match Co., Ltd.)

MINTS

There are Government mints which issue silver and copper coinage at

Canton
Chengtu
Mukden
Nanking
Tientsin
Wuchang
Yunnanfu

NAIL AND NEEDLE FACTORIES

Hanyang Nail and Needle Factory	(Closed down)

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[1] Amalgamated as the Tan-Hua Match Co.

Oil Mills

Bean and Cotton Seed Oil Factory (Japan Cotton Trading Co., managers)	Hanyang.
Cotton and Bean Oil Pressing Factory	„
Chi Chang Yuan Oil Mill	Newchwang
Dairen Oil and Fat Industry Co.	Dairen
Haichow Oil Mills	Haichow
Hsin Chang Oil Mill	Newchwang
Hsing Shun Lung Oil Mill	„
Hsi Yi Shun Oil Mill	„
Ifland's, I. Oil Mill	Harbin
Ing Fong Oil Mill	Hanyang
Kodera and Co.'s Oil Mill	Newchwang
Kroll and Co.'s Oil Mill	Harbin
Kuang Sheng Oil Mill	Tungchow (Chinkiang)
Lih Teh Oil Mill (Messrs. Burkill & Sons)	
Nisshin Bean Mill	Dairen
Santai Bean Mill	„
„ Oil Mill	Newchwang
Scharf's Oil and Bone Mills	Jessfield, Shanghai
Shanghai Oil Co., Ltd.	Jessfield Mill, Shanghai
Shun Foong Oil Mill	Hanyang.
Sing Chee Oil Mill	Hankow
Si Shun Oil Mill	Hanyang
Suzuki Mill	Dairen
Swatow Bean Cake and Oil Factory	Swatow
T'ai Ku Yuan Oil Mill	Newchwang
Tienshun Oil Mill	Hanyang
Tung Chu Ho Oil Mill	Newchwang
Tung Yung Mao Oil Mill	„
Yuan Chang Oil Mill	„
Yuan Feng Oil Cake Co.	Fonning (Nanking)
Yuan Mao Sheng Oil Mill	Newchwang
Yu Foong Oil Mill	Hanyang
Yu Hsing Oil Press Co.	Yingchow (Wuhu)
Yung Chang Yuan Oil Mill	Hanyang
Yu Hsin Oil Co.	Chinkiang
Yung Yi Oil Mill	Newchwang

There are 13 bean-oil mills in Antung.

An oil-drum factory, with an oxygen plant attached, was installed in Shanghai in September, 1911, by the Asiatic Petroleum Company, Ltd. This company has its head office (*a*) for North China in Shanghai, with sub-offices at Chinkiang, Kiukiang, Wuhu, Hankow, Tientsin, Newchwang, Tsingtao, Tsinanfu and Antung; (*b*) for South China in Hongkong, with sub-offices at Canton, Swatow, Amoy and Foochow. Its tanks are installed at the above-named ports (with the exception of Antung) and at Tongku, Hangchow and Soochow in North China, and Wuchow in South China. The company has 135 agents in North China, and 95 in South China.

PAPER MILLS

Canton Government Paper and Printing Works	Canton
Chengtu Lo Li Paper Co.	Chengtu
Ching Cheng Paper Factory	Nangzing (Chekiang)
Government Paper Mill	Hankow
„ „ „	Shanghai
„ „ „	Tsinanfu
Hankow Paper Mill	(Seven Mile Creek) Hankow
Hupeh Paper Factory	Wuchang
Kongmoon Paper Mill Co., Ltd.	Kongmoon
Shanghai Pulp and Paper Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Shomi Inshokwan	„
Taishing Paper Mill Co., Ltd.	Hongkong
Tseng Yuan Paper Mills	Canton

PENCIL FACTORY

China Pencil Co.	Shanghai

PRINTING AND LITHOGRAPHIC WORKS

The subjoined list is by no means exhaustive. Printing presses using foreign type and under Chinese or foreign management are to be found in almost every Treaty Port, and there are Mission Presses (Protestant and Roman Catholic) in every large town.

Basin and Co. (Russian)	Harbin
Bergut and Son „	„
Brewer and Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Burack and Co.	Harbin
Caledonian Press	Hankow
China Mail	Hongkong
China Press	Shanghai
China Printing Co.	„
China Outlook	Hongkong
China Times, Ltd.	Tientsin
Chinese Eastern Railway's Printing Works	Harbin
Chinese Government Bureau of Printing and Engraving	Peking
Chung Tung Litho Works	Tientsin
Chung Yu Copper Plate and Collodion Type Works	„
Commercial Press, Ltd.	Shanghai
Deutsch-Chin. Druckerei, etc.	Tsingtao
Deutsche Druckerei and Verlagsanstalt	Shanghai
E. Shing	„
Foochow Printing Press	Foochow
Guedes and Co.	Hongkong
Hankow Daily News	Hankow
„ Printing Office	„

Hongkong Daily Press	Hongkong
,, Printing Press	,,
,, Telegraph	,,
Imprimerie de la Société des Missions Étrangères	,,
Imprimerie de Pekin	Peking
Industrial Mission Press	Chefoo
International Printing and Publishing Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Kelly and Walsh, Ltd.	Shanghai and Hongkong
Kwang Chi Printing Works (Chinese)	Harbin
Lee, E., and Co.	Tientsin
Manchurian Daily News	Dairen
Manchurian Lithographing Co. (Belgian)	Harbin
Methodist Publishing House	Shanghai
Military Printing Works of Pogranitchnaia Guards	Harbin
Norhona and Co.	Hongkong
North China Daily News and Herald, Ltd.	Shanghai
"Novi Krai"	Harbin
"Novi Zizn"	,,
Oriental Press	Shanghai
Peitang (R.C. Mission)	Peking
Peking Gazette	,,
Presbyterian Mission Press	Shanghai
Shanghai Mercury, Ltd.	,,
,, Times	,,
Skoblin Bros. (Russian)	Harbin
South China Morning Post, Ltd.	Hongkong
Sze Hing and Co.	Chefoo
Tageblatt für Nord China	Tientsin
Tai Sing and Co.	Hankow
Tientsin Press, Ltd.	Tientsin
T'ou-se-we Press (Catholic Mission)	Sicawei (Shanghai)
"Trud" Printing Co. (Russian)	Harbin
Tung Hing	Shanghai

Railway Works

Canton-Hankow Railway (Canton Section)	Wongsha
Canton-Kowloon Railway (Chinese Section)	Taishatao
Chinese Eastern Railway (Railway Shops)	Harbin
Hanyang Iron Works	Hanyang
Kin-Han Railway Works	Changsintien (near Peking)
Pekin-Mukden Railway	Tongshan Works
Shanghai-Nanking Railway (Locomotive and Car Shops)	Woosung
Shantung Railway Co.'s Works	Tsingtao
South Manchuria Railway Co.	Dairen and Shakahu
Swatow-Chaochoufu Railway (Locomotive Repair Shop)	Swatow
Tientsin-Pukow Railway Works	Tsinanfu

RICE HULLING AND CLEANING MILLS

Ch'ing Feng Rice Hulling Co.	Nanking
Fou Hsiang Rice Hulling Co.	Changsha
Sao Fung Rice Mill	Hanyang
Tung Ho Hulling Mill	Hangchow
Wuhu Rice and Flour Mills	Wuhu

There are about six rice (and flour) mills in Wuhu, and one in Swatow.

ROPE FACTORIES

Hongkong Rope Manufacturing Co., Ltd. (Shewan, Tomes and Co., General Managers)	Hongkong

SAW MILLS

Chieng Hing Saw Mill Co.	Foochow
Chinese Eastern Railway's Saw Mills	Harbin
" " " " "	(M. I. Fried, Lessee) Shitouhedtzu (140 miles E. of Harbin)
Chinese Saw Mill at	Wenchow
Fujitani Saw Mill	Antung
Germania Saw Mills	Foochow
Hankow Saw Mill and Wood Working Factory	Hankow
Hongkong Saw Mills (China Borneo Co., Managers)	Hongkong
Kiliansky and Co.'s Saw Mill	Khandashedtzu (170 miles E. of Harbin)
Kovalsky and Dinowsky	Yablonia (150 miles E. of Harbin)
Kow Kee Timber, Saw Mill and Construction Co.	Shanghai
Okura Saw Mills, Ltd.	Liutaokow (near Antung)
Shevtchenko Bros.	Khingan (352 miles W. of Harbin)
Shanghai Building Co.	Shanghai
" Dock and Engineering Co., Ltd.	"
Shaw's, G. L., Saw Mill	Antung
Skidelsky, L. S.	Veishahe (120 miles E. of Harbin)
Slinkin and Co.'s Saw Mill	Khandashedtzu (170 miles E. of Harbin)
Tchashin Bros.	Mulin (268 miles E. of Harbin)
Yablonia Timber Co.	Yablonia (150 miles E. of Harbin)
Yalu Saw Mill Co.	Antung

SILK FILATURES

Chefoo Filanda (Sing Tai and Co., Managers)	Chefoo
China European Filature Co., Ltd. (P. E. Lintilhac and Co., Agents)	Shanghai
Dong Yah Dsang Silk Filature Co.	,,
Ewo Silk Filature (Jardine, Matheson and Co.)	,,
German-Chinese Silk Filature	Tsingtao
Jeah Kong Silk Filature	Shanghai
Lung Hua Silk Filature	,,
Shih Ching Silk Filature	Hangchow
Shanghai Silk Spinning Co., Ltd.	Shanghai (Jessfield)
Shanghai Waste Silk Boiling Co. (A. R. Burkill and Sons)	Shanghai
Shu Mei Silk Filature	Chungking
Silk Filature	I-Ling (Nanking)
Sin Chong Silk Filature	Shanghai (Jessfield)
Soy Lun Silk Filature Co. (Arnhold Karberg and Co.)	Shanghai
Tong Yue Filature	,,
Wha Tai Silk Filature	Chefoo
Wuchang Silk Filature	Wuchang

Some 180 silk filatures are to be met with in Kuangtung Province, 50 in Szechuan, and 26 in Antung town. The above list only includes the larger businesses equipped with modern machinery, and in operation at the Treaty Ports. (See p. 106.)

SMELTING WORKS

Antimony Refining Works	Chihts'un (near Mengtze)
Carlowitz and Co.'s Antimony Refining Works	Wuchang
Chi Cheng Metal Smelting Co.	Changsha
Hua Ch'ang Mining and Smelting Co.	,,
A Japanese Plant at	,,
Kansu Government Copper Smelting Works	Yaokai, Liangchowfu
Kochiu Tin Smelting Works	Kochiu (Yunnanfu)
Kuangsi Government Antimony Works	Wuchow
Kuhara (Zinc) Refinery	Fushun
Pao Ta Co.'s Antimony Refining Works	Wuchow
Sino-German Ore Co. (Schwarz, Gaumer and Co.)	Ch'iaok'ou
Tzu Sheng Iron Smelting Works	T'ungchow (Chinkiang)
Yunnan Tin Trading Co.	Kochiu (Yunnanfu)
Yu-Hao Tungsten Mining Co.	Changsha

SOAP AND CANDLE FACTORIES

Blackhead, F., and Co.'s Soap Factory	Hongkong
Ch'ing Shêng Tai Soap Factory	Hunchun
Dedeneff's, P. P., Soap Factory	Harbin
Harbin Chemical Laboratory (Soap)	"
Ho Mao Soap Factory	Chinkiang
Hsiang Sheng Candle and Soap Factory	Shanghai
Hsiang Shun Foreign Candle Co.	"
Ifland Bros.' Soap Factory	Harbin
Kann's, P. M., Soap Factory	"
Koo Pun Soap Works (Soyka and Co., Agents)	Shanghai
Kroll and Co.'s Candle Factory	Harbin
Kuang Ming Soap and Candle Factory	Ningpo
Lung Mao Soap Co.	Shanghai
Moonlight Soap Co.	"
Pao Sheng Soap and Candle Factory	Wochin, Kiangsu
Pao Tai Soap Factory (Burtenshaw and Co.)	Hankow
Popoff Bros.' and Co.'s Candle Factory	Harbin
Price's Patent Candle Co., Ltd.	Shanghai
Standard Oil Co.'s Candle Factory	"
Sukenin and Kros' Soap Factory	Harbin
Ta Lung Soap Factory	T'ungchow (Chinkiang)
Taraspolsky and Co.'s Candle Factory	Harbin
Tung Sheng Soap and Candle Factory (Heath and Co., Agents)	Tientsin
Yu Feng Candle Co.	Shanghai
Yu Li Shih Candle Factory	Chinkiang
Yu Te Official Soap Factory	Chengtu

SUGAR REFINERIES

Asiho Sugar Co. (Russian)	Asiho (26 miles E. of Harbin)
China Sugar Refinery Co. (Jardine, Matheson and Co., Ltd.)	Hongkong
Hulan Sugar Refinery[1]	Hulan (Manchuria)
Hua Hsiang Sugar Factory	Amoy
South Manchuria Sugar Refining Co.	Mukden
Taikoo Sugar Refining Co. (Butterfield and Swire)	Hongkong

A factory at Foochow.

TANNERIES (See LEATHER FACTORIES)

TEA FACTORIES

Hung Shan Tea Factory	Ch'iaok'ou (Hankow)
Litvinoff and Co.	Hankow and Kiukiang

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[1] Offered for sale in 1918 by the Fengtien Government.

Lo Ki Heung Tea Factory	Hongkong
Lo Ki Shang Tea Factory	”
Molchanoff, Pechatnoff and Co.	Hankow and Kiukiang
Trading Co.	Hankow
Tung Ling Tea Factory	Foochow

TOBACCO FACTORIES

British-American Tobacco Co.	Factories at Hankow, Newchwang, Mukden, Shanghai
Chang Hsing Cigarette Co.	Hongkong
Ch'ang Hsing Cigarette Factory	Canton
Chinese Cigarette Factory at	Chengtu
” ” ” ”	Tsinanfu
Japanese Government Monopoly Factory	Newchwang
Lin Chi Cigarette Co.	Tientsin
Lopatto and Sons (Russian)	Harbin
Nanyang Bros. Tobacco Co.	Canton
Nastashevsky and Co.	Harbin
Orient Tobacco Factory	Hongkong
Oriental Cigarette and Tobacco Co.	Shanghai
Peiyang Tobacco Co.	Tientsin
Protopapas, E. D. and Co.	Tientsin, Peking and Mukden
Sanrin Tobacco Co.	Mukden
San Shing Cigarette Co.	Shanghai
Ssu Min Cigarette Co.	”
Tabaqueria Filipina	Shanghai and Peking
Tientsin Tobacco Co.	Tientsin and Peking

VACCINE LABORATORIES

One laboratory at Hongkong and another (municipal) at Shanghai manufacture small-pox, plague, typhoid, and other vaccines. Two others at Shanghai (Japanese) and Nanking manufacture small-pox vaccine only.

WATERWORKS

Waterworks are established or under construction in the following places:

- Canton (daily output 4,000,000 gallons)
- Changsha
- Chengtu
- Chungking
- Hangchow
- Hankow (3)
- Hongkong
- Kaifengfu
- Kowloon
- Nantao
- Newchwang
- Peking
- Shameen (under construction, "Candy" process)
- Shanghai (International Settlement, French Concession, Native City, and Chapei)
- Swatow
- Tientsin
- Tsingtao
- Yunnanfu

Woollen Factories

Government (Military) Woollen Cloth Factory .	Tientsin
Hupeh Government Wool Factory . .	Wuchang
Kansu Government Woollen Cloth Factory .	Lanchow
Shi Hui Woollen Weaving Factory . .	Shanghai
Tientsin Wool Spinning (?) Factory . .	Tientsin

Wool Cleaning and Pressing Factories

Arnhold, Karberg and Co. . . .	Tientsin
Carlowitz and Co.	,,
Collins and Co.	,,
Forbes and Co.	,,
Jardine, Matheson and Co. . . .	,,
Liddell Bros. and Co.	,,
Mackenzie and Co.	,,
Tientsin Wool Cleaning Factory . .	,,
Wilson and Co.	,,

Hydraulic Press Packing Factories

Carlowitz and Co.	Hankow
Ewo-Yuen Press Packing Co. . . .	Shanghai
Liddell Bros. and Co.	Hankow and Shanghai
Mackenzie and Co.	Shanghai and Tientsin

Tramways

Electric Tramways are in operation or under construction at :

Dairen Hongkong Peking
Shanghai (International Settlement, French Concession, and Native City)

Telephones

Telephone systems are in operation or under construction at the following places: Antung, Chengtu, Chungking, Dairen, Foochow, Hangchow, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Kiukiang (to Kuling), Mukden, Peking, Sanjaobu (to Mokanshan), Shanghai, Soochow, Tientsin, Tsingtao, Wuchang.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPHY

There are wireless installations at Dairen, Hongkong, Peking (Chinese Government, and American and Italian Legations), Port Arthur, Shanghai (Chinese Government), Tsingtao, Weihaiwei, Woosung.

On September 25, 1918, the wireless station at Lyons, France, made connexion with the station at Koukaza, Shanghai, a distance of 11,000 kilometres.

On August 24, 1918, a contract was concluded between the Marconi Company and the Chinese Government for the supply of 200 wireless telephone installations having a range of 40 miles. The Company undertook to raise a loan of £600,000 for the Government, at 8 per cent interest, on the security of Chinese Treasury bonds, repayment beginning in 1924 and ending in 1929.

Silk Filatures.—(See p. 102.) The recent growth of silk filatures is shown in the following table :—

Town.	1915.		1916.		1917.	
	Filatures.	Spinning Machines.	Filatures.	Spinning Machines.	Filatures.	Spinning Machines.
Shanghai . .	56[1]	14,424[1]	61	16,288	71	18,802
Soochow . .	3	736	3	736	3	736
Wusieh . .	8	2,118	9	2,532	9	2,660
Chinkiang . .	2	448	2	456	2	456
Hangchow . .	1	276	1	276	1	276
Huchow . .	1	200	1	208	1	208
Hsiaoshan . .	1	108	1	200	1	200
	72	18,310	78[2]	20,696[2]	88[3]	23,338[3]

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[1] Ewo filature operating 540 machines not included.

[2] Wuchang ,, ,, 200 ,, ,, ,,

[3] Hupeh ,, ,, 200 ,, ,, ,,
Hunan ,, ,, 100 ,, ,, ,,
Yunnan ,, ,, 40 ,, ,, ,,

CHAPTER X

COMMERCE

Historical

FOR the purposes of this chapter it is only necessary to record briefly the chief incidents leading up to the establishment of international trade in China on the footing that it now occupies.[1]

To pass over the names of individual travellers who visited China at various times from the third to the fifteenth century, the order in which the Western nations had (or attempted to have) direct trade dealings with the Chinese Empire is as follows :—

Portugal	1516	
Spain	1575	
Holland	1604	
England	1637	
Russia	1658	Unsuccessful embassies had been sent to Peking at earlier dates.
France	1660	
The United States	1784	

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the ships of other countries—Denmark, Sweden, Austria, Prussia—reached China, but their trade did not attain any considerable dimensions, although the two first named had factories at Canton. From the middle of the seventeenth century Anglo-Chinese relations dominated Chinese foreign affairs, and it was left to Great Britain to fight out the principle of unfettered trade with China for all nations.

PORTUGAL

Direct trade between Europe and China was inaugurated by Portugal. In 1511 Alfonso Dalboquerque (D'Albuquerque) captured Malacca, near the southernmost point of the Malay Peninsula, and in 1516 Rafael Perestrello sailed from Malacca to China on a prospecting expedition. Up to that time Chinese trade had used Singapore (Singhapura), Malacca, or some other port as a centre for transhipment, the goods being conveyed thence in Arab sailing-ships to India, Persia, etc. These latter countries had also been reached overland by Chinese trade. Perestrello returned to Malaçca, and in 1517 Fernão Perez de Andrade arrived with eight ships at Changchuen (St. John's Island), seventy-five miles southwest of Macao. With two ships Andrade proceeded to Canton, and received permission from the Viceroy to trade. In the following years the attitude of the Portuguese aroused the hostility of the Chinese, and their trading depôt was attacked and destroyed in 1522. The survivors retired to Lampa (Lampaco), in Kuangtung, where a trading-post existed for the next fifty years. Another expedition reached the coast of Fukien in 1518 and established trade centres in due course at Chuanchoufu, north of Amoy, at Foochow, and at Ningpo in Chekiang. Between 1545 and 1549 an Imperial order for the general extermination of the Portuguese was put into effect. Macao was established as a trading-post in 1537 or, according to other authorities, in 1557. The Portuguese paid a rental for the peninsula until 1849 (Tls. 500 for the last hundred years, prior to that Tls. 600, and at first Tls. 1000), when they abolished the Chinese Customs House and declared the independence of the port. During the eighteenth century Macao was the chief port for Western trade with China. The cession of Hongkong to Great Britain in 1842, however, and the commercial prosperity of that port led to the downfall of Macao, which is now in a decadent condition.

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[1] For an exhaustive account of the growth of China's international relations the reader is referred to *The International Relations of the Chinese Empire*, by H. B. Morse (Kelly and Walsh, 1910)—a masterly work which has been largely laid under contribution for the accompanying précis of events—and to Mr. A. J. Sargent's *Anglo-Chinese Commerce and Diplomacy* (Clarendon Press, Oxford).

SPAIN

The Spaniards were the next nation to venture upon direct relations with the Chinese, using Manila as their base. Two priests reached Canton in 1575, were favourably received by the Viceroy at Shiuhsing on the West River, and returned to Manila. The bulk of the trade that then sprang up between China and the Philippines was in the hands of the Chinese themselves, but the port of Amoy was closed from 1730 to 1842 to all foreigners except Spaniards. "The trade with the Chinese Empire, conducted by the Spanish themselves, was insignificant" (Morse).

HOLLAND

The Dutch made attempts to open up trade with China in 1604 and 1607, but, although their ships reached Canton, the requisite permission was denied them by the Chinese at the instigation of the Macao authorities. In 1622 a Dutch force appeared off Macao, and an unsuccessful attempt was made to capture the place. With the Pescadores (in the Formosa Channel) as their base, the Dutch continued their efforts to seize Macao during the next two years, but subsequently contented themselves with occupying Formosa without opposition. They established centres at Taiwanfu, Tamsui and Kelung. In 1661 they were driven out of Formosa by Koxinga, who was maintaining an ineffectual struggle on behalf of the Ming dynasty against the usurping Manchus. Various efforts were made by the Dutch to obtain recognition in China, mainly by means of embassies to Peking (1655, 1665, 1795), which were characterized by complete acquiescence in all Chinese demands regarding the kowtow before the Emperor, etc.; but these attempts met with no success. A very small trade was indulged in spasmodically on the coast of Fukien, and it was not until 1762 that a Dutch factory was established at Canton.

FRANCE

Trade relations between France and China date from the formation of a trading company in 1660, and from that year French ships reached Canton at irregular intervals. The company was reorganized in 1698, and thirty years later a factory was established at Canton. In 1776 (L. Richard. H. B. Morse gives the date as 1802) a French Consulate was established at that port.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The first American ship to reach China arrived at Canton in 1784, and from the outset American trade obtained a good footing, ultimately taking second place.

ANGLO-CHINESE RELATIONS

The first attempt on the part of the English to open up trade with China was made in 1596, when Queen Elizabeth sent a letter to the Emperor of China. The mission started, but the ship and all on board were lost at sea. In 1635 the East India Company, under licence from the Governor of the Portuguese colony of Goa, dispatched a ship to Macao, and in the following year a squadron of four (five) ships left England with a letter from King Charles to the Portuguese Captain-General at Macao. This expedition, under Captain John Weddell, reached Macao on June 25, 1637. Captain Weddell failed to obtain recognition from the Portuguese, and was obliged to force his own way to Canton, where he disposed of his cargo and loaded with sugar and ginger (Morse). In 1664 and 1674 further attempts were made to open up trade with Canton by the East India Company, but without much success, owing in part to Portuguese opposition. In 1670, however, similar efforts met with success at Amoy and in Formosa, a second ship being sent to Amoy in 1677. The year 1681 saw the Company's factory at Amoy closed, and another unsuccessful attempt to open trade at Canton. But in 1685 an Imperial decree was issued opening all the ports of China to foreign trade. This permission was given effect to at once in the case of Amoy, but the first ship to reach Canton under the new conditions did not arrive until 1689. In 1757 other counsels prevailed, and in that year an Imperial edict prohibited all foreign trade at any other port than Canton, which in the meantime had become the main centre of foreign trade on account of the ruinous exactions enforced at other ports.

In 1702 the first attempt on the part of the Chinese Government to create a foreign trade monopoly was made by the appointment of the Hoppo (or Emperor's Merchant) "to be the sole broker through whom all foreigners must buy their teas and silk, and must sell the few foreign products for which a demand then existed." Two years later the Hoppo had to admit other merchants to a share of his monopoly, and the establishment of the Co-hong (as will be seen) brought him into less direct contact with foreign merchants; but his post, that of Administrator of the Canton Customs, was not actually abolished until 1904, when its functions were transferred to the Viceroy. From the beginning of the eighteenth century the East India Company gave more serious attention to its trade with China, and arranged not only for a regular service of ships, but also for the permanent domicile of its representatives at Canton. At first the Company had to content itself with an annual "committee" of its servants on the spot during the trading season (mainly from October to April, when the monsoons favoured arrival and departure respectively); but ultimately more permanent residence was secured for a few merchants (of all nationalities), while the majority would be compelled by the Chinese to withdraw to Macao to await the next season. In 1699 royal assent had been obtained for the head of the Company's committee or council to be styled "Consul." From this time on the East India Company exercised a monopoly of the English trade with China, outside merchants trading under the licence of the Company, and the monopoly was not abolished until 1834

In 1720 the Cantonese merchants engaged in the foreign trade formed themselves into a guild, or Co-hong, with the object of regulating prices. A protest was at once entered by the supercargoes, and the Co-hong may have been nominally suppressed, but it was quickly in existence again. In 1760 it received a formal charter, and remained in existence until abolished under the Treaty of Nanking in 1842. The system enforced under the Co-hong monopoly was that for every foreign merchant trading at Canton one of the thirteen Hong merchants had to be security, and through him alone, both in regard to what he sold and what he bought, could the foreigner transact business. "The traders during the winter season lived in the factories (the residence and office of the factor, or business agent), which were the property of the Hong merchants, and rented, in whole or in part, to the foreigners" (Morse). There were thirteen factories. The exactions levied on the foreign traders throughout this period were continually the subject of protest, and the more glaring attempts to prejudice the trade for the benefit of the Chinese officials could only be remedied by threats to withdraw the ships and their consignments. In exchange for the chief exports, tea, silk and cotton cloth, the English traders brought raw cotton, opium and woollen goods, while specie was an important factor in the early trade relations of England and China.

The unsatisfactory conditions under which trade with China was being carried on and the persistent determination of the Chinese officials at Canton to expose British subjects and Government representatives to every possible indignity caused the Home Government to attempt to induce China to adopt a more reasonable attitude by dispatching embassies to Peking. The first mission, under Lord Macartney, in whose suite were Sir George Staunton and J. Barrow, reached Peking on August 21, 1793, had audience of the Emperor Kien Lung twice at Jehol, and returned without securing any definite undertaking in regard to British trade. In 1816 the embassy of Lord Amherst to the Emperor Kia King was even less successful, for the kowtow being insisted upon and refused, Lord Amherst left Peking without obtaining an interview. A further attempt to improve the trade relations between the two countries and to conciliate the Chinese was made in 1834, when Lord Napier arrived at Macao as chief superintendent of trade with certain powers of jurisdiction in Canton waters. The Viceroy of Canton refused to receive any communication from Lord Napier, unless it came through the Hong merchants, and after a stoppage of trade by the Chinese, the Chief Superintendent, thwarted of the purpose of his mission, was compelled to withdraw on September 21, 1834, to Macao, where he died three weeks later.

On the top of this contemptuous attitude towards British overtures, the studied determination of the Chinese Government not to promote in any way trade with foreign countries and the equally strong resolve of the Chinese officials on the spot to use that trade to the utmost for their own interests, came the opium question. On this subject it is only necessary to state[1] here that, whereas the poppy has been grown in China and opium known to the Chinese medicinally for a thousand years, the practice of mixing opium with tobacco for smoking purposes was first introduced by the Dutch from Java into Formosa, and thence to Amoy and the mainland of China. Foreign opium was first brought to China by the Portuguese from Goa. In 1780 the East India Company took the English share of the trade out of the hands of private English traders, in which it had been for seven years under licence of the Company, and monopolized it for its own benefit. When, however, the Chinese Government, in 1800, showed itself resolved to suppress the trade, the Company ceased to have anything to do with opium, and the traffic reverted to private traders. In 1839 Commissioner Lin Tse-sü was appointed by the Emperor Tao Kuang to eradicate the opium habit at all costs, and the surrender of all chests of opium in the hands of British merchants was actually agreed to, under pressure by the British representative, Captain Elliot, Chief Superintendent of Trade in China. In consequence of a dispute on this point, British ships had been prohibited from entering Cantonese waters, when in an affray at Hongkong on July 7, 1839, a Chinese was killed by a party of British sailors (American participation was alleged, but was denied by the

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[1] General authority for statement on the opium trade, H. B. Morse, *op. cit.*

American Consul). This incident was the immediate cause of the war between Great Britain and China, commonly known under the erroneous title of the Opium War. The actual murderers of the Chinese could not be discovered, and the British Superintendent refused the Chinese demand for the execution of a substitute. The war was marked by the blockade of Canton and the capture of Amoy, Ningpo, and Shanghai. It terminated with the signing of a Convention at Nanking, August 29, 1842. China paid an indemnity of $21,000,000. By the Treaty of Nanking Hongkong was ceded to the British,[1] the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai were opened to foreign trade, the right to appoint consuls at these ports was recognized, the Canton monopoly system was abolished, regular tariffs on imports and exports were to be established, and it was provided that the officials of corresponding rank of the two countries should be regarded as equal and communicate with one another on equal terms.

The Treaty of Nanking was followed by other Treaties still further regulating the commercial relations between China and foreign countries: the Treaty of the Bocca Tigris with the British (October 8, 1843), the Treaty of Wanghsia with the United States (July 3, 1844), the Treaty of Whampoa with France (October 24, 1844), a Convention with Belgium signed at Canton (July 25, 1845), and a treaty of peace, amity and commerce with Sweden and Norway signed at Canton (March 20, 1847). Shanghai was opened to foreign trade on November 17, 1843, Ningpo in December, 1843, Foochow and Amoy in June, 1844, and Canton nominally in October, 1843, but the admission of foreigners was postponed by the Treaties of April 4, 1846, and April 6, 1847.

The following years were marked by a series of outrages on foreigners by Chinese, who could not accept the new régime. A climax was reached on October 8, 1856, when a Hongkong-registered lorcha flying the British flag was boarded at Canton by Chinese officers and soldiers, who hauled down the flag and removed the crew to guard-boats. All attempts on the part of the British authorities to obtain redress failed, and the two nations finally found themselves at war. Great Britain in this struggle was joined by France, who had been unable to secure satisfaction at the hands of China for the murder of a missionary, and on December 29, 1857, Canton was captured by the Allies. The next year saw the British and French carrying the war to the north. The Peiho forts were taken on May 20 and China agreed to discuss terms of settlement in Tientsin in June. Negotiations for treaties of peace and commerce were opened simultaneously by Great Britain, France, Russia and the United States, and the order in which the Treaties were signed was: Russia (June 13), United States (June 18), Great Britain (June 26), France (June 27). Russia had previously concluded a treaty at Aigun (May 16) defining Russo-Chinese boundaries along the River Amur and providing for trade on the banks of the Ussuri, Amur and Sungari. In June, 1859, the British and French plenipotentiaries, when on their way to Peking to exchange ratifications of the treaties, were fired upon by the Taku forts. After an advance by the allied forces had received a check, a bigger joint expedition was fitted out. Peking was entered on October 13, 1860, and the Treaties agreed upon in June, 1858, were ratified (with additional clauses) on October 24 (by Great Britain) and October 25 (by France). By these Treaties the Powers concerned were to appoint Ministers to reside permanently in Peking, nine ports including Tientsin were to be opened to foreign trade, Kowloon (the mainland facing Hongkong) was ceded to the British and an indemnity of Tls. 8,000,000 each was to be paid to the Allies. The revision of the tariff system fixed by the Treaty of Nanking (5 per cent duty on imports and exports) was provided for, and this was subsequently carried into effect, a scheduled tariff of import and export duties being drawn up on November 8, 1858, at Shanghai. France also secured privileges for the propagation and practice of Christianity ("the teachings of the Lord of Heaven") and compensation for churches, schools, land and buildings that had been confiscated from Christians.

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[1] Kowloon, a strip of territory on the mainland, was added by the Treaty of October 24, 1860, and to this was added, under lease for 99 years, by the Convention of June 9, 1898, the peninsula south of a line drawn between Deep Bay and Mirs Bay, together with the islands of Lantao and Lamma.

In the course of the next few years Treaties with other Powers were also signed by China: Russia (Nov. 14, 1860), Germany (Sept. 2, 1861), Portugal (Aug. 13, 1862, not ratified), Denmark (July 13, 1863), Netherlands (Oct. 6, 1863), Spain (Oct. 10, 1864), Belgium (Nov. 2, 1865), Italy (Oct. 26, 1866), United States (July 28, 1868), Austria-Hungary (Sept. 2, 1869).

The Chefoo Agreement with Great Britain (September 13, 1876) was brought about by an attack on a British Commission from India by Chinese on the Yunnan frontier. (Murder of R. A. Margary of H.M. Consular Service.) By this Agreement China undertook to allow frontier trade between Burma and Yunnan, four new ports were opened to foreign trade (Ichang, Wuhu, Wenchou, and Pakhoi), a British Mission of Exploration to Tibet was authorized, and provision was made for collection of likin on opium in addition to the tariff duty (Tls. 80 per chest as likin and Tls. 30 as duty).

War between China and France over the annexation by the latter of Tongking led to the Treaty of Tientsin (April 25, 1886), by which *inter alia* two towns, subsequently specified as Lungchou, in Kuangsi, and Mengtze, in Yunnan, were opened to foreign trade. An additional convention between the same parties, signed in Peking, June 20, 1895, secured the opening to trade of two other towns, Hokow and Szemao, in Yunnan.

The Treaty of Shimonoseki (November 8, 1895), that marked the end of the China-Japan War, provided for the opening of Chungking in Szechuan, Shasi in Hupeh, Soochow in Kiangsu, and Hangchow in Chekiang. The intervention of Russia, Germany, and France to prevent the cession of the Liaotung peninsula, provided for in the first draft of the treaty (April 17), procured for Russia the right to carry the Siberian Railway through Manchuria to Vladivostok, and for France the right to extend the Tongking Railway to Nanningfu in Kuangsi (June 20, 1895).

The foreign occupation of the mainland of China was brought about by the murder o two German missionaries in Shantung. By an agreement signed on March 6, 1898, China leased to Germany for 99 years the territory of Kiaochou (193 square miles), and sanctioned the construction of two lines of railway in Shantung. A similar agreement (March 27, 1898) leased to Russia for 25 years, subject to extension by mutual agreement, Port Arthur and Talienwan (Dalny or Dairen). Other agreements leased Kuangchouwan in Kuangtung to France (April 22, 1898) and Weihaiwei (285 square miles) to Great Britain (July 1, 1898).

The Boxer rising of 1900 led to the increase of China's indebtedness by £67,500,000 by way of indemnity, and prepared the ground for the three commercial treaties with Great Britain (Sept. 5, 1902), the United States (Oct. 8, 1903), and Japan (Oct. 8, 1903).

The "*Most-Favoured-Nation*" clause appears first in China's international undertakings in the treaty with the United States signed at Tientsin, June 18, 1858, which was negotiated as a substitute for the Treaty of Wanghsia, July 3, 1844. The clause was inserted in the British and French treaties of the same time, and has appeared in the commercial treaties subsequently ratified with other countries.

THE CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS

By the Treaty of Nanking China undertook to establish at the five ports open to foreign trade a fair and reasonable tariff of export and import dues. In 1843 Shanghai was declared an open port and a Customs House was duly established. The native city of Shanghai fell into the hands of the Taipings in 1853, and with it the Customs House. After an interval during which no duties were collected, the British and American Consuls in Shanghai decided that their respective nationals had to continue to declare the nature of their imports and exports and to pay or to deposit bonds for the payment of a 5 per cent duty. This system lasted until June 29, 1854, when an agreement was made with the Shanghai Taotai, then a refugee in the foreign concession, that a Customs Office should be established under foreign control, each of the Consuls of Great Britain, the United States and France nominating an inspector. This Customs Office was opened on July 12, 1854.

Of the three Inspectors appointed the British nominee alone, Mr. T. F. Wade, spoke Chinese, and the supreme direction of the Customs House devolved on him. He was summoned to the Peking Legation in the following year and his place was taken by Mr. H. N. Lay. The latter was confirmed in his post and became after the Treaty of Tientsin the first Inspector-General of the Customs Service, which in the course of these few years had been extended to the other open ports in China. In 1859 Mr. Robert Hart was appointed Deputy Commissioner of the

Canton Customs, and became Acting Inspector-General when Mr. Lay obtained leave of absence to proceed to England. Mr. Lay had elaborated a scheme for the purchase of revenue cruisers by China for the purpose of suppressing piracy, and in England bought eight vessels, which were dispatched to China under the command of Captain Osborne, R.N. His action was repudiated by the Chinese authorities and owing to the consequent disagreement Mr. Lay was forced to resign his post. Mr. Robert Hart became Inspector-General of the Imperial Maritime Customs on November 30, 1863. The head offices were transferred to Peking from Shanghai, and a complete reorganization of the Service was introduced. Mr. Hart, who was knighted in 1882, retained the post of Inspector-General until his death on September 21, 1911. He had left Peking in May, 1908, nominally on leave of absence, but it was understood that he would not return to China to take up active work again. For two years Sir Robert Bredon, Deputy Inspector-General, was Acting Inspector-General. He was succeeded in that capacity in April, 1910, by Mr. F. A. Aglen (now Sir Francis Aglen), who after the death of Sir Robert Hart received the substantive appointment of Inspector-General by Imperial Rescript on October 25, 1911.

In addition to collecting duties on imports and exports, the Imperial Maritime Customs are charged with the collection of (1) duties on the coasting trade in foreign-built bottoms, whether Chinese or foreign-owned; (2) tonnage dues on shipping; (3) transit duties exempting foreign imports from further taxation on removal inland; (4) likin (special levy in addition to the tariff) on foreign opium. They are also responsible for the lighting of the coast and some inland waterways, and at Shanghai they maintain a force of river police. All moneys collected by the Customs are paid to an official Customs Bank, attached to each office, which is under the control of a Chinese Superintendent.

By Imperial Decree of May 9, 1906, the Maritime Customs, which had hitherto been (more nominally than actually) under the Chinese Foreign Office, were placed under the direct control of a new Board specially created for this purpose—the Shuiwuchu or Revenue Council.

The Imperial Chinese Post Office, which grew up under the Imperial Maritime Customs and was formally recognized by Imperial Edict on March 20, 1896, was ordered on May 29, 1910, to be separated from the Service and to be put under the Ministry of Posts and Communications (Yuchuanpu), and the actual transfer was carried out in May, 1911.

The administration of the Customs Service is now divided into three main sections:—(1) the Revenue Department, (2) the Marine Department, (3) the Works Department. The total number of employees (June 1, 1918) is 7178, while as many more are employed in the Postal Service. The foreigners in the Service number 1148 (representing nineteen nationalities, enemy subjects excluded), of whom a little more than 50 per cent are British.

The Staff is apportioned as follows:—[1]

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[1] In 1918.

A. Revenue Department

1. *Indoor Staff.*

	Foreign.	Chinese.
Inspector-General	1	—
Commissioners	40	—
Deputy Commissioners	24	—
Chief Assistants	28	5
First ,,	33	4
Second ,,	49	10
Third ,,	23	10
Fourth ,,	21	54
Clerk	1	—
Miscellaneous (not including Medical Officers, 53)	16	—
	236	83

(Chinese.)

Clerks (i.e. linguists)	624
Chienhsi	23
Writers	67
Copyists	39
Teachers	4
"Lushih"	355
Shroffs, etc.	9
	1121

2. *Outdoor Staff.* (Foreign.)

Chief Tide-surveyors, Tide-surveyors, Assistant Tide-surveyors, Boat Officers	56
Chief Appraisers, Chief Examiners, Examiners, Assistant Examiners	218
Tidewaiters (1st, 2nd, 3rd Class)	388
Tidewaiters (Probationary)	22
District Local Watchers	47
Miscellaneous	42
	773

(Chinese.)

Tidewaiters and Others	3202

3. *Coast Staff.* (Foreign.)

Commanders	4
Officers	13
Engineers	10
Gunner	1
	28

(Chinese.)

Steamer and Launch Hands	337

B. Marine Department.

Coast Inspector's Staff (Foreign)	14			
Harbours' ,, ,,	28			
Lights ,, ,,	44			
Marine ,, ,,	11			
		97		
Coast Inspector's Staff (Chinese)			8	
Harbours' ,, ,,			16	
Lights ,, ,,			486	
Marine ,, ,,			473	
Chinese ,, (Excluding Lights & Marine Staffs)			289	
				1272

C. Works Department.

Engineers' Staff	6
Office	1
Outdoors	7
Chinese	15

Total : 1148 Foreigners, 6030 Chinese.

The Inspectorate-General

On February 13, 1898, in reply to a letter from Sir Claude Macdonald, the British Minister to Peking, the Chinese Foreign Office (then Tsungli Yamen) gave assurance that the Inspector-General of the Maritime Customs should be a British subject so long as British trade predominates in China.

Native Customs

Native Customs Houses exist side by side with the Maritime Customs at the treaty ports, as well as at all important stations on the coast and inland. At the treaty ports the trade carried on in Chinese sailing craft (the junk traffic) comes under their jurisdiction. By the Peace Protocol (1901) the native Customs Houses within fifteen miles of a treaty port have been placed under the supervision of the Foreign Commissioner of Customs of that port, with the result that a regular tariff has in these cases been substituted for the irregular levy or bargaining customary at native Customs stations. Under the administration of Yuan Shih-kai an attempt was made to reform the native customs, by adjusting the rates which had remained, at least nominally, the same for over a century, and by introducing improved methods of control and collection. The new rate is $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent *ad valorem*. The staff of the Native Customs in 1918 comprised 1214 Chinese, together with 576 (62 foreigners) members of the Maritime Customs staff detailed for Native Customs work.

The ports where the transfer of the native station has been effected are :—Amoy, Canton, Chefoo, Foochow, Ichang, Kiukiang, Kiungchow, Kongmoon, Newchwang, Ningpo, Pakhoi, Santuao, Shanghai Shasi, Swatow, Tientsin, Wenchow, Wuchow, Wuhu.

NATIVE CUSTOMS REVENUE IN HAIKUAN TAELS

Port.	1914. Hk. Tl. =2s. 8$\frac{3}{4}$d.	1915.* Hk. Tl. =2s. 7$\frac{1}{8}$d.	1916. Hk. Tl. =3s. 3$\frac{13}{16}$d.	1917. Hk. T l. =4s. 3$\frac{13}{16}$d.
1. Amoy	82,277	81,765	77,049	71,551
2. Canton	261,867	261,757	216,469	285,103
3. Chefoo	65,628	72,681	85,837	81,058
4. Foochow	196,735	179,051	182,189	243,506
5. Ichang	66,414	61,560	60,641	55,404
6. Kiukiang	385,695	407,932	384,435	347,067
7. Kiungchow	26,281	25,050	20,686	25,083
8. Kongmoon	94,341	94,974	37,780	69,036
9. Newchwang	161,413	171,701	122,897	144,843
10. Ningpo	101,742	104,553	137,176	125,159
11. Pakhoi	7,693	7,184	9,582	9,463
12. Santuao	70,389	76,098	82,711	84,486
13. Shanghai	217,887	228,154	213,895	229,952
14. Shasi	17,656	16,713	11,709	11,831
15. Swatow	75,338	111,595	115,637	122,545
16. Tientsin	1,000,412[1]	1,109,344[1]	1,091,237[1]	999,052[1]
17. Wenchow	32,357	38,802	39,020	48,583
18. Wuchow	95,106	98,593	117,239	135,570
19. Wuhu	429,762	637,054	740,447	686,430
Total Hk. Tls.	3,389,001	3,784,570	3,746,645	3,775,732

[1] Not including the Outward Transit Dues collected on behalf of and remitted to the Maritime Customs.

TREATY PORTS, MARTS, ETC.

A. Customs Stations

Port.	Province.	Date of Customs Opening.	By Treaty with	Estimated Chinese Population, 1917.
1. Aigun	Heilungkiang	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	23,814
2. Amoy	Fukien	April, 1862	Great Britain, 1842	114,000
3. Antung	Shengking	March, 1907	United States, 1903	45,091
4. Canton	Kuangtung	Oct., 1859	Great Britain, 1842	900,000
5. Changsha	Hunan	July, 1904	Japan, 1903	535,800
6. Chefoo	Shantung	March, 1862	Great Britain, 1858	54,500
7. Chinkiang	Kiangsu	April, 1861	Great Britain, 1858	168,309
8. Chinwangtao	Chihli	Dec., 1901	Imperial Decree, 1898	5,000
9. Chungking	Szechuan	March, 1891	Great Britain, 1890	425,000

TREATY PORTS, MARTS, ETC.—*continued*

Port.	Province.	Date of Customs Opening.	By Treaty with	Estimated Chinese Population, 1917.
10. Dairen	(Shengking)	July, 1907	(1)	49,784
11. Foochow	Fukien	July, 1861	Great Britain, 1842	624,000
12. Hangchow	Chekiang	Oct., 1896	Japan, 1895	684,137
13. Hankow	Hupeh	Jan., 1862	Great Britain, 1858	[a]1,321,280
14. Harbin	Kirin	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	28,600
15. Hunchun	Kirin	Jan., 1910	Japan, 1905	2,619
16. Ichang	Hupeh	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1876	55,000
17. Kiaochou	Shantung	July, 1899	(2)	(Tsingtao) 77,052
18. Kiukiang	Kiangsi	Jan., 1862	Great Britain, 1858	36,000
19. Kiungchow (Hoihow)	Hainan	April, 1876	Great Britain, 1858	56,639
20. Kongmoon	Kuangtung	March, 1904	Great Britain, 1902	70,000
21. Kowloon	Kuangtung	April, 1897	Great Britain, 1886	—
22. Lappa	Kuangtung	June, 1871	—	—
23. Lungchingtsun	Kirin	Jan., 1910	Japan, 1905	650
24. Lungchow	Kuangsi	June, 1889	France, 1886	13,000
25. Manchouli	Heilungkiang	Feb., 1907	Japan, 1905	2,919
26. Mengze	Yunnan	Aug., 1889	France, 1886	10,000
27. Nanking	Kiangsu	May, 1899	France, 1858	377,459
28. Nanning	Kuangsi	Jan., 1907	Great Britain, 1897	50,000
29. Newchwang	Shengking	May, 1864	Great Britain, 1858	56,683
30. Ningpo	Chekiang	May, 1861	Great Britain, 1842	470,000
31. Pakhoi	Kuangtung	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1876	20,000
32. Samshui	Kuangtung	June, 1897	Great Britain, 1897	6,000
33. Sansing	Kirin	July, 1909	Japan, 1905	15,647
34. Santuao	Fukien	May, 1899	Imperial Decree, 1898	8,000
35. Shanghai	Kiangsu	June, 1854	Great Britain, 1842	1,000,000
36. Shasi	Hupeh	Oct., 1896	Japan, 1895	105 000
37. Soochow	Kiangsu	Sept., 1896	Japan, 1895	500,000
38. Suifenho	Kirin	Feb., 1908	Japan, 1895	1,737
39. Swatow	Kuangtung	Jan., 1860	Great Britain, 1858	85,000
40. Szemao	Yunnan	Jan., 1897	France, 1895	15,000
41. Tatungkow	Shengking	Mar., 1907	Japan, 1903	4,208
42. Tengyueh	Yunnan	May, 1902	Great Britain, 1897	10,000
43. Tientsin	Chihli	May, 1861	Great Britain, 1860	800,000
44. Wenchow	Chekiang	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1858	124,544
45. Wuchow	Kuangsi	June, 1897	Great Britain, 1897	40,000
46. Wuhu	Anhui	April, 1877	Great Britain, 1870	108,610
47. Yatung[1]	Tibet	May, 1894	Great Britain, 1893	—
48. Yochow	Hunan	Nov., 1899	Imperial Decree, 1898	4,800
			Total	9,179,436

(1) By an Agreement dated May 30, 1907, Japan undertook to place the Dairen Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs.

(2) By an Agreement dated Dec. 2, 1905, Germany placed the Kiaochou Customs under the control of the Maritime Customs.

[1] No Customs Revenue is collected at Yatung.

[a] Including Wuchang and Hanyang.

B. Opened to Trade

In addition to the above "ports" the following places have been declared open to international trade :—

In Mongolia			
Taonan			Japan, 1915
In Manchuria			By Agreement with
Mukden		(Shengking)	U.S., 1903
Fakumen		"	Japan, 1905
Fenghuangcheng		"	" "
Hsinmintun		"	" "
Tiehling		"	" "
Tungkiangtze		"	" "
Yingkou (Port of Newchwang)		"	
Liaoyang		"	
Taonan		"	Japan, 1915
Changchun (Kuanchengtze)		(Kirin)	" 1905
Kirin		"	" "
Ninguta		"	" "
Chuitzuchien	Chientao	"	Japan, 1909
Toutaokou		"	" "
Paitsaokou		"	" "
Tsitsihar		Heilungkiang	Japan, 1905
Hailar		"	" "
In Chihli			
Chihfeng			Japan, 1914
Dolonor			" "
Kueihuacheng			" "
Hulutao			" "
Kalgan			" "
In Sinkiang			
Kashgar			Russia 1860
In Shantung			
Choutsun			Imperial Decree, 1904
Lungkow			Japan, 1915
Tsinanfu			Imperial Decree, 1904
Weihaiwei			(Leased to Great Britain)
Weihsien			Imperial Decree, 1904
In Kiangsu			
Woosung (near Shanghai)			Imperial Decree, 1898
In Kuangtung			
Hongkong			Ceded to Great Britain
Macao			Ceded to Portugal
Kuangchouwan			Leased to France
In Szechuan			
Wanhsien (Customs branch only, 1917)			
In Tibet			
Gartok Gyangtze			Great Britain. Tibetan Treaty, September 7 1904 (confirmed by China, April 27, 1906)

C. Ports of Call

I. YANGTZE STAGES

a. Tatung (Anhui)	For Passengers and Cargo	By Chefoo Agreement, September 13, 1876
b. Anking (,,)		
c. Hukow (Kiangsi)		
d. Wusueh (Hupeh)		
e. Lukikow (,,)		
f. Kiangyin (Kiangsu)	For Passengers	Yangtze Regulations, August, 1898
g. Icheng (,,)		
h. Huangchihkang (Hupeh)		
i. Huangchow (,,)		

II. WEST RIVER STAGES

a. Kumchuk (Kuangtung)	For Passengers and Cargo	Burma Agreement, Feb., 1897
b. Shuihsing ,,		,, ,, ,, ,,
c. Paktau ,,		Mackay Treaty, Sept., 1902
d. Takhing ,,		Burma Agreement, Feb., 1897
e. Lating ,,		Mackay Treaty, Sept., 1902
f. Dosing ,,		,, ,, ,, ,,
g. Fungtsun ,,	For Passengers	Mackay Treaty, Sept., 1902
h. Kaukong ,,		
i. Yutshing ,,		
k. Lukpo ,,		
l. Howlik ,,		
m. Lutu ,,		
n. Maning ,,		
o. Yungan ,,		
p. Kulo ,,		
q. Jungki ,,		

List of Open Ports arranged according to the Total Amount of Customs Revenue Collected at each during the Year 1917.

	Total Collection. *Hk. Tls.*		Total Collection. *Hk. Tls.*
1. *Shanghai* (2)	11,214,573	19. *Amoy* (2)	390,963
2. *Tientsin* (8)	4,269,037	20. Ningpo	365,405
3. *Hankow* (5)	3,767,100	21. Wuhu	389,531
4. Dairen	3,088,517	22. Mengtze	381,108
5. *Canton* (2)	2,332,322	23. Nanking	352,949
6. Kiaochow	1,864,620	24. Kowloon	338,431
7. Antung	1,099,807	25. Chinwangtao	287,620
8. Swatow	951,635	26. *Hangchow* (1)	277,269
9. *Kiukiang*	614,604	27. Manchouli	275,588
10. Changsha	522,725	28. *Soochow* (1)	233,412
11. *Newchwang*	506,321	29. Kongmoon	172,239
12. Chefoo	478,887	30. Samshui	163,719
13. Chungking	466,713	31. Kiungchow	157,309
14. Wuchow	456,561	32. Lappa	144,744
15. Foochow	455,907	33. Nanning	143,966
16. Suifenho	415,877	34. Santuao	128,513
17. Harbin	397,551	35. Aigun	78,860
18. Chinkiang	387,330	36. Ichang	78,517

		Total Collection. *Hk. Tls.*			Total Collection. *Hk. Tls.*
37.	Pakhoi	69,373	44.	Wanhsien	40,980
38.	Sansing	67,958	45.	Lungchingtsun	40,337
39.	Yochow	63,076	46.	Hunchun	27,961
40.	Tengyueh	60,600	47.	Szemao	6,021
41.	Wenchow	60,075	48.	Lungchow	3,196
42.	Shasi	46,949	49.	Tatungkow	1,226
43.	Lungkow	41,423		Total	38,189,428

Treaty ports with separate foreign settlements are indicated by italics, the numerals in brackets being the number of separate concessions.

MARINE DEPARTMENT

For the purposes of the lighting of the coast of China the coast-line is divided among the following Customs districts:—

DISTRICT.	LIMITS.
1. Pakhoi.	Tonkin frontier to Waichow Island.
2. Kiungchow (Hoihow).	Hainan coast: Waichow Island to Hailingshan.
3. Kongmoon.	West River from Samchow to sea: Kumchuk Creek, Wangmoon approach to West River.
4. Samshui.	West River from Cocks Comb to Samchow and Fatshan Branch.
5. Wuchow.	West River from Wuchow to Cocks Comb.
6. Canton.	Hailingshan to 114° E. longitude.
7. Swatow.	Mirs Point to the Lamocks.
8. Amoy.	The Lamocks to Chuanchoufu (Chinchen).
9. Foochow.	Chinchen to Ragged Point.
10. Santuao.	Ragged Point to Namkuan.
11. Wenchow.	Namkuan to Taichow.
12. Ningpo.	Taichow to Hangchow Bay.
13. Shanghai.	Hangchow Bay to the old mouth of the Yellow River (34° N. lat.) and up the Yangtze to the Langshan Crossing.
14. Chinkiang.	The Yangtze from the Langshan Crossing to the Icheng Rocks from Vine Point to Nanking.
15. Nanking.	The Yangtze from the Icheng Rocks to the Rosina Rock.
16. Wuhu.	The Yangtze from the Rosina Rock to Anking, and from Nanking to Tatung.
17. Kiukiang.	The Yangtze from Anking to the Matsushan, and from Tatung to the Matsushan.
18. Hankow.	The Yangtze from the Matsushan to Singti.
19. Yochow.	From Singti to Low Point and the waterways between Yochow and Changteh.
20. Changsha.	The Siang River above Lolintan.
21. Ichang.	From Yochow to the gorge above Ichang.
22. Chefoo.	From the old mouth of the Yellow River to the Tatsinho.
23. Tientsin.	From the Tatsinho to Shanhaikuan.
24. Newchwang.	From Shanhaikuan to Dairen.

SUMMARY OF LIGHTS, ETC.

The following is a summary of the Lights, Light-vessels, Light-boats Buoys, and Beacons maintained by the Customs in Chinese waters (corrected to December, 1915):—

Customs District.	Lights.	Light-vessels.	Light-boats.	Buoys.	Beacons.	Total.
Pakhoi . . .	—	—	—	3	—	3
Kiungchow . .	3	—	—	4	—	7
Kongmoon . .	3	—	—	—	2	5
Samshui . . .	1	—	1	—	1	3
Wuchow . . .	—	—	—	16	—	16
Canton . . .	24	—	—	15	15	54
Swatow . . .	6	—	—	3	1	10
Amoy . . .	4	—	—	10	16	30
Foochow . . .	5	—	—	16	12	33
Santuao . . .	2	—	—	1	1	4
Wenchow . . .	2	—	—	1	3	6
Ningpo . . .	6	—	—	2	5	13
Shanghai . . .	15	3	1	38	34	91
Chinkiang . .	8	—	4	4	1	17
Wuhu . . .	6	—	4	—	—	10
Kiukiang . . .	18	—	13	—	10	41
Hankow . . .	15	—	19	—	9	43
Yochow . . .	7	—	—	25	6	38
Changsha . .	4	—	—	2	10	16
Ichang . . .	—	—	—	2	4	6
Chefoo . . .	6	—	—	4	3	13
Tientsin . . .	10	1	2	1	9	23
Newchwang . .	—	1	—	8	7	16
Harbin . . .	37	—	—	16	649	702
Total . .	182	5	44	171	798	1200

LIKIN

Likin (literally "contribution of a thousandth," i.e. one-tenth of 1 per cent) is a tax imposed upon goods in inland transit. Originally levied to meet the additional expenditure caused by the Taiping Rebellion, it was first imposed in 1853, but in 1861, when the Taiping and Mohammedan Rebellions were simultaneously in progress, the tax was extended throughout the country. Likin stations (barriers) exist at all large towns and are placed along the main routes of commerce, both by land and water. An official tariff is in existence, but is practically ignored both by officials and traders, by the former in order to allow for "squeeze," by the latter in order to pay the enhanced rate (which would be imposed in any case) on a less amount of goods than is actually being cleared. This incidence of bartering and coming to terms in the matter of likin renders its imposition the more severe on railway lines, where the specified weight of goods is recorded and offers little opportunity of "adjustment" to the mutual convenience of likin official and trader. For this reason goods traffic on certain lines where likin is heavy at the towns *en route* (e.g. Shanghai-Nanking Railway) is seriously affected. Guilds and regular traders meet likin charges by the payment of lump sums. The tax collected is generally 3 per cent at the departure station and 2 per cent at each inspection station. The amount collected within a province, however, is usually so arranged as not to exceed 10 per cent, but when goods are transported through several provinces it may reach from 15 to 20 per cent.

Foreign imports and exports, on payment to the Maritime Customs of half the import duty, plus the *ad valorem* tariff, are exempt from likin taxation in the course of transport. [At all Treaty Ports foreign goods, after payment of the import duty, may be despatched at any time to another Treaty Port without further payment.]

Article VIII of the Mackay Treaty (Shanghai, 1902) states :—"The Chinese Government, recognizing that the system of levying likin and other dues on goods at the place of production, in transit and at destination impedes the free circulation of commodities and injures the interests of trade, hereby undertake to discard completely those means of raising revenue with the limitation mentioned in section 8."

In exchange the British Government agreed to a surtax not exceeding 12½ per cent on foreign imports and 7½ per cent on exports, *plus* a consumption tax on articles of Chinese origin not intended for export. The agreement, however, has not yet come into operation. The question is complicated by the fact that the likin revenues of certain provinces are pledged under foreign loans.

Lt.-General Tien Chung-yu, of the Ministry of War, and Chao Chunlien, an accountant of the Bank of China, were appointed in 1916 to undertake a joint investigation of the Likin system, with a view to remedying certain defects and drawing up a report.

CHINA'S TREATIES,[1] ETC.

A. With Great Britain

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1. 1842, Aug. 29 (Nanking, Treaty).	Peace. Indemnity. Cession of Hongkong. Ports opened. Institution of Tariff Duties.
2. 1843, June 26 (Hongkong).	Declaration confirming Transit Duties at existing rate. (Amended 1858.)
3. 1843, July.	General Regulations for British Trade at Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo and Shanghai. Embodied in No. 4.

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[1] The text of these Treaties (where ratified before 1907) will be found in Hertslet's *China Treaties* (Vol. I), and in the *List of Chinese Treaties* published by the Imperial Maritime Customs in 1908.

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
4. 1843, Oct. 8.	Supplementary Treaty of Commerce.
5. 1846, April 4 (Bocca Tigris, Convention).	Admission of Foreigners into Canton postponed. Chusan evacuated by British.
6. 1847, April 6 (Agreement).	Canton to be opened in two years' time. Trade at Honan. Erection of Churches at Ports of Trade.
7. 1858, June 26 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Peace. Appointment of Ambassadors and Consuls. Religious Toleration. Eight ports opened. Administration of Justice. Revision of Tariff Navigation. Veto on use of expression "Barbarian."
8. 1858, Nov. 8 (Shanghai, Agreement).	Rules of Trade. Tariff of Imports and Exports. Transit Dues.
9. 1860, Oct. 24 (Peking, Convention).	Peace. Residence in Peking of British Minister. Tientsin opened. Cession of Kowloon.
10. 1865, Oct. 27 (Peking, Agreement).	Articles relative to Customs. Seizures at Shanghai.
11. 1866, March 5 (Peking, Convention).	Regulations for engagement of Chinese emigrants.
12. 1869, Oct. 23 (Peking, Convention).	Supplementary regulations for commerce and navigation. Ports opened.
13. 1876, Sept. 13 (Chefoo, Agreement).	Settlement of Yunnan case. Official Intercourse and Trade between the two countries. Ports opened.
14. 1880, Dec. 10 (Peking, Agreement).	Personal Relations and Official Intercourse and Trade between Consular Officers and Provincial Authorities.
15. 1885, July 18 (London).	Additional Article to Chefoo Agreement. Traffic in Opium.
16. 1886, July 24 (Peking, Convention).	Relative to Burma and Tibet.
17. 1886, Sept. 11 (Hongkong, Agreement).	Opium Trade at Hongkong.
18. 1890, March 17 (Calcutta).	Sikkim and Tibet. Boundary. Trade.
19. 1890, March 31 (Peking, Additional Article).	Chungking to be a Treaty Port.
20. 1893, Dec. 5 (Darjeeling, Regulations).	Supplementing Sikkim-Tibet Convention. Yatung opened to trade.

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
21. 1894, March 1 (London, Convention).	Burma and China. Boundary. Trade.
22. 1894, Sept. 6 (Tientsin, Convention).	Junction of Chinese and Burmese Telegraph Lines.
23. 1897, Feb. 4 (Peking, Agreement).	Modification of 21. Opening of Ports on West River.
24. 1898, Feb. 9–11 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).	"China will never alienate any territory in the provinces adjoining the Yangtze to any other Power."
25. 1898, June 9 (Peking, Convention).	Extension of Hongkong Territory.
26. 1898, July 1 (Peking, Convention).	Lease of Weihaiwei.
27. 1901, Sept. 7 (Peking, Final Protocol).	Resumption of Friendly Relations. Indemnity for Boxer Rising. Legation Quarter. Reforms Waiwupu.
28. 1902, Aug. 29 (Shanghai, Agreement).	New Chinese Import Tariff.
29. 1902, Sept. 5 (Shanghai, Mackay Treaty).	Commercial Relations.
30. 1904, May 13 (London, Convention).	Chinese Labour in British Colonies.
31. 1905, May 23 (Peking, Convention).	Revision of 22. Chinese and Burmese Telegraph Lines.
32. 1905, Sept. 27 (Peking, Agreement).	Huangpu Conservancy.
33. 1906, April 27 (Peking, Convention).	Tibet, Confirming Anglo-Tibetan Treaty of September 7, 1904.
34. 1911, May 8 (Peking).	Importation of Opium.

B. With Austria-Hungary

1. 1869, Sept. 2 (Peking, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, and Navigation.

Austria-Hungary was also a signatory to the Peace Protocol, the Customs Tariff, and the Huangpu Conservancy (*supra* 27, 28, and 32), together with Belgium, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Russia, Spain and the United States.

C. With Belgium

1. 1845, July 25 (Imperial Letter).	Permission to trade.
2. 1865, Nov. 2 (Peking, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation, Jurisdiction.

See also B (**Austria-Hungary**).

D. With Brazil

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1. 1881, Oct. 3 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

E. With Congo Free State

1. 1898, July 10 (Peking, Treaty).	Mutual Most Favoured Nation Treatment.

F. With Denmark

1. 1863, July 13 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

G. With France

1. 1844, Oct. 24 (Whampoa, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.
2. 1858, June 27 (Tientsin, Treaty).	" " "
3. 1858, Nov. 24 (Agreement).	Tariff, Commercial Regulations.
4. 1860, Oct. 25 (Additional Convention).	Indemnity. French Religious Establishments.
5. 1865, Aug.-Sept. (Exchange of Notes).	Tonnage Dues.
6. 1884, May 11 (Tientsin, Preliminary Convention).	Peace (Annam).
7. 1885, April 4 (Paris, Protocol).	Cessation of Hostilities.
8. 1885, June 9 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Peace, Commerce, Railways.
9. 1886, April 25 (Tientsin, Convention).	Commercial Convention.
10. 1887, June 26 (Peking, Convention).	Additional Convention. Commerce, Navigation.
11. 1887, June 26 (Peking, Convention).	China-Tongking Frontier Delimitation.
12. 1888, Dec. 1 (Chefoo, Convention).	Telegraph Lines.
13. 1895 (Peking).	Acquisition of Land or House Property by French Missionaries.
14. 1895, June 20 (Peking, Convention).	China-Tongking Boundary.
15. 1895, June 20 (Peking, Convention).	Commerce, Mining.
16. 1898, April 9-10 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).	Tongking-Yunnanfu Railway. Lease of Kuangchouwan. French Director of China's Postal Service.
16A. 1898, April 10 (Peking, Assurance).	Assurance given by Tsung-li-Yamen respecting the non-alienation of Kuangtung, Kuangsi and Yunnan.
17. 1898 (Peking, Draft Convention).	Lease of Kuangchouwan.

See also **B** (Austria-Hungary).

H. With Germany

	DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1.	1861, Sept. 2 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.
2.	1880, Mar. 31 (Peking, Supplementary Convention).	Commerce, Navigation.
3.	1880, Mar. 31 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).	Tonnage Dues.
4.	1898, Mar. 6 (Peking, Treaty).	Lease of Kiaochou.

See also **B (Austria-Hungary)**.

I. With Italy

1.	1866, Oct. 26 (Peking).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

See also **B (Austria-Hungary)**.

K. With Korea

1.	1899, Sept. 11 (Seoul, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce.

L. With Japan

1.	1885, April 18 (Tientsin, Convention).	Withdrawal of Chinese and Japanese troops from Korea.
2.	1895, April 17 (Shimonoseki, Treaty).	Peace. Cession of Formosa, Pescadores and Liaotung Peninsula.
3.	1895, Nov. 8 (Peking, Convention).	Retrocession of Liaotung. Compensation.
4.	1896, July 21 (Peking, Treaty).	Commerce, Navigation.
5.	1896, Oct. 19 (Peking, Protocol).	Japanese Settlements.
5A.	1898, April 26 (Peking, Assurance).	Assurance of Tsung-li Yamen respecting non-alienation of Fukien province.
6.	1903, Oct. 8 (Shanghai, Treaty).	Supplementary Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.
7.	1905, Dec. 22 (Peking, Treaty).	Manchuria. Confirmation of Russo-Japanese Treaty.
8.	1907, April 15 (Peking, Agreement).	Railways in Manchuria.
9.	1907, May 30 (Peking, Agreement).	Opening of Tairen Customs.
10.	1908, May 13 (Tokio, Agreement).	Yalu Forests.
11.	1908, Oct. 2 (Tokio, Agreement).	South Manchurian Railways.
12.	1908, Oct. 12 (Tokio, Convention).	Port-Arthur-Chefoo Cable. South Manchurian Telegraphs.
13.	1909, Aug. 19 (Mukden, Memorandum).	Broadening of gauge of Antung-Mukden Railway.

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
14. 1909, Sept. 1 (Peking, Agreement).	Settlement of Manchurian controversies. Chientao. Railways. Mines.
15. 1910, Feb. 10 (Peking, Convention).	Manchurian Postal Service.
16. 1915, May 25 (Peking, Convention).	Province of Shantung.
17. 1915, May 25 (Peking, Convention).	South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

See also **B** (**Austria-Hungary**).

M. With Mexico

1. 1899, Dec. 14 (Washington, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.

N. With the Netherlands

1. 1863, Oct. 6 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce. Protection to Missionaries. Converts.
2. 1911, July (Peking, Agreement).	Chinese Consulates in Dutch Colonies.

See also **B** (**Austria-Hungary**).

P. With Peru

1. 1874, June 26 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation. Emigration.
2. " (Special Agreement).	Chinese Immigrants in Peru.

Q. With Portugal

1. 1862, Aug. 13 (Tientsin).	Commerce. This Treaty was not ratified owing to the dispute about the sovereignty of Macao.
2. 1897, March 26 (Lisbon, Protocol).	Perpetual inalienable occupation of Macao.
3. 1887, Dec. 1 (Peking, Treaty).	Friendship. Commerce. Confirmation of No. 2. Opium.
4. 1887, Dec. 1 (Convention).	Opium trade of Macao.
5. 1887, Dec. 1 (Agreement).	
6. 1909, Feb. 12 (London).	Appointment of Commissioners for the delimitation of Macao.

R. With Russia

1. 1689 (Treaty).	Peace. Boundaries. Right to travel and trade.
2. 1727, Oct. 21 (Treaty).	Peace. Boundaries. Freedom of Commerce.

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
3. 1768, Oct. 18 O.S. (Treaty).	Frontier Offences.
4. 1851, July 25 (Kuldja, Treaty).	Freedom of Commerce. Trade between Ili and Tarbagatai.
5. 1858, May 16 (Aigun, Treaty).	Friendship. Boundaries along Amur River. Trade.
6. 1858, June 13 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Commerce. Navigation. Freedom of Religion. Postal Service.
7. 1860, Nov. 14 (Peking, Additional Treaty).	Frontier Trade. Boundaries. Consular Affairs.
8. 1864, Oct. 7 (Tchuguchak, Protocol of Conference).	Boundaries.
9. 1869, April 27 (Peking, Revised Convention).	Overland Trade.
10. 1881, Feb. 24 (St. Petersburg, Treaty, with Protocol and Regulations).	Re-establishment of Chinese Authority in Ili. Boundary. Consuls. Frontier Trade.
11. 1886, Oct.-Dec. (Peking, Correspondence).	Port Hamilton. Korea.
12. 1892, Aug. 25 (Tientsin, Convention).	Telegraph Lines.
12A.[1] 1896, Sept. 8 (Peking).	Construction and working of Chinese Eastern Railway.
13. 1898, March 27 (Peking, Agreement).	Lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan.
14. 1898, May 7 (St. Petersburg, Additional Agreement).	Boundaries of Liaotung Peninsula.
15. 1902, March 26 (Peking, Agreement).	Re-establishment of Chinese Authority in Manchuria.
16. 1907, Sept. 26 (Tchuguchak, Agreement between Russian Consul and local Chinese Authorities).	Tea Transport.
17. 1909, May 11 (Peking, Preliminary Agreement).	Jurisdiction in Manchurian Railway Settlements.
18. 1910, Aug. 9 (Peking, Convention).	Navigation on the Sungari River.
19. 1913, Nov. 5 (Peking).	Independence of Mongolia.
20. 1915, June 7 (Kiakhta).	Tripartite Agreement (Russia, China, Mongolia) regarding the status of Mongolia.

See also **B (Austria-Hungary)**.

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[1] This Agreement was nominally with the Russo-Chinese Bank, which undertook to form a company to be known as the Chinese Eastern Railway Company.

S. With Spain

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1. 1864, Oct. 10 (Tientsin, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.
2. 1877, Nov. 17 (Peking, Convention).	Chinese Emigration to Cuba.

See also **B** (**Austria-Hungary**).

T. With Sweden and Norway

1. 1847, Mar. 20 (Canton, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.
2. 1904, Mar. 30 (Agreement).	Customs Tariff (see **A** (**Great Britain**), No. 28).

U. With the United States

1. 1844, July 3 (Wanghsia, Treaty).	Friendship, Commerce, Navigation.
2. 1858, June 18 (Tientsin, Treaty).	" " "
3. 1858. Nov. 8 (Shanghai, Convention).	Tariff, Regulation of Trade.
4. 1868, July 28 (Washington, Additional Articles).	Trade, Liberty of Conscience. General Relations.
5. 1880, Nov. 17 (Peking, Treaty).	Chinese Immigration into the United States.
6. 1880, Nov. 17 (Peking, Supplementary Treaty).	Commercial Intercourse, Judicial Procedure.
7. 1894, Mar. 17 (Washington, Convention. Expired Dec. 7, 1904).	Emigration between the two Countries.
8. 1903, Oct. 8 (Shanghai, Treaty).	Commercial Relations. Mining Regulations. Copyright.
9. 1908, Oct. 9 (Washington, Convention).	Arbitration.

See also **B** (**Austria-Hungary**).

TREATIES BETWEEN OTHER POWERS RELATING TO CHINA

A. Great Britain and Belgium

1. 1904, Sept. 15–30 (Brussels, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks in China.

B. Great Britain and Denmark

1. 1905, Nov.–Dec. (Copenhagen, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks in China.

C. Great Britain and France

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1. 1896, Jan. 15 (London, Declaration).	Privileges in Yunnan and Szechuan
2. 1898, April and Aug. (London, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.
3. 1899–1900, Dec. and Jan. (London, Exchange of Notes).	British and French Concessions at Hankow.

D. Great Britain and Germany

1. 1908, April 20 (Berlin, Exchange of Notes).	British Occupation of Weihaiwei.
2. 1900, Oct. 16 (London, Agreement).	Mutual Policy in China.
3. 1906, March 24–6 (London, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.

E. Great Britain and Italy

1. 1903, July and Aug. (London, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.

F. Great Britain and Japan

1. 1902, Jan. 30 (London, Agreement).	Alliance. Independence of China and Korea.

Replaced by the following Agreement :—

2. 1905, Aug. 12 (London, Agreement).	Alliance. Integrity of China, Korea, India.
3. 1911, May (London, Agreement).	Alliance. Modification of 1905 Agreement.

G. Great Britain and the Netherlands

1. 1904, Aug. and Sept. (The Hague, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.

H. Great Britain and Portugal

1. 1904, Aug. 4 and 8 (Lisbon, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.
2. 1,913 June (London).	Opium Traffic in Hongkong and Macao.

I. Great Britain and Russia

DATE.	SUBJECT MATTER.
1. 1899, April 28 (St. Petersburg, Exchange of Notes).	Respective Railway Interests in Yangtze Valley and north of Great Wall.
2. 1906, Oct. 29–30 (Peking, Exchange of Notes).	Reciprocal Protection of Trade Marks.
3. 1907, Aug. 31 (St. Petersburg, Convention).	Tibet [also Persia, Afghanistan].
4. 1907, Aug. 31 (St. Petersburg, Exchange of Notes).	Scientific Expeditions to Tibet.

K. France and Russia

1. 1902, March 16 (Agreement).	Integrity of China.

L. France and Japan

1. 1907, June 10.	Integrity of China.

M. Japan and Russia

1. 1905, Sept. 5 (Portsmouth, Treaty).	Treaty of Peace.
2. 1907, June 13 (St. Petersburg, Provisional Convention).	Junction of Japanese and Russian Railways in Manchuria.
3. 1907, July 30 (St. Petersburg, Convention).	Integrity of China.
4. 1910, July 4 (St. Petersburg, Agreement).	Maintenance of *status quo* in Manchuria.

N. Japan and Korea

1. 1910, Aug. 29.	Annexation of Korea (published).

O. Japan and the United States

1. 1908, Nov.	Exchange of Notes regarding policy in the Pacific Ocean and in China.

CHAPTER XI

TRADE STATISTICS

OWING to the fluctuations in silver, which are apt to render the conversion of Taels into sterling misleading, the following returns, taken from the publications of the Chinese Maritime Customs, are given in their original currency values, Haikuan Taels. The average value of the Haikuan Tael to be used for the conversion of the figures for any given year into pounds sterling, American dollars, francs, marks, etc., is set forth below :—

YEAR.	HAIKUAN TAEL EQUIVALENT TO							For Pounds Sterling divide Haikuan Taels by
	s.	d.	American Dollars.	Francs.	Marks.	Rupees.	Yen.	
1899 ...	3	$0\frac{1}{8}$	0·73	3.79	3·06	2·25	1·47	6·643
1900 ...	3	$1\frac{1}{4}$	0·75	3·90	3·16	2·32	1·52	6·443
1901 ...	2	$11\frac{9}{16}$	0·72	3·73	3·02	2·22	1·45	6·749
1902 ...	2	$7\frac{1}{5}$	0·63	3·28	2·65	1·95	1·27	7·692
1903 ...	2	$7\frac{2}{3}$	0·64	3·34	2·68	1·97	1·28	7·579
1904 ...	2	$10\frac{2}{5}$	0·66	3·60	2·92	2·14	1·40	6·977
1905 ...	3	$0\frac{1}{10}$	0·73	3·79	3·06	2·25	1·46	6·648
1906 ...	3	$3\frac{1}{2}$	0·80	4·12	3·36	2·46	1·60	6·076
1907 ...	3	3	0·79	4·09	3·33	2·42	1·58	6·154
1908 ...	2	8	0·65	3·37	2·74	2·02	1·31	7·5
1909 ...	2	$7\frac{3}{16}$	0·63	3·28	2·66	1·95	1·27	7·695
1910 ...	2	$8\frac{5}{16}$	0·66	3·40	2·76	2·01	1·31	7·427
1911 ...	2	$8\frac{1}{4}$	0·65	3·40	2·75	2·00	1·32	7·442
1912 ...	3	$0\frac{5}{8}$	0·74	3·85	3·12	2·27	1·49	6·55
1913 ...	3	$0\frac{1}{4}$	0·73	3·81	3·08	2·25	1·47	6·62
1914 ...	2	$8\frac{3}{4}$	0·67	3·45	2·79	2·04	1·34	7·32
1915 ...	2	$7\frac{1}{8}$	0·62	3·39	2·67	1·95	1·25	7·71
1916 ...	3	$3\frac{13}{16}$	0·79	4·63	3.68	2·46	1·54	6.028
1917 ...	4	$3\frac{13}{16}$	1·03	5·94	4·78	3·11	1·98	4·825

CUSTOMS REVENUE, 1906 to 1917

YEAR.	IMPORT DUTIES.*	EXPORT DUTIES.†	COAST TRADE DUTIES.*	TONNAGE DUES.	TRANSIT DUES.		OPIUM LIKIN.	TOTAL.
					Inwards.	Outwards.		
	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
1906	16,100,954	9,825,706	2,203,192	1,326,609	1,831,934	445,167	4,330,083	36,068,595
1907	14,879,247	9,454,648	1,768,982	1,321,192	1,631,383	435,017	4,370,877	33,861,346
1908	13,134,509	10,983,485	1,856,605	1,264,915	1,387,069	403,890	3,871,422	32,901,895
1909	14,084,736	12,335,675	2,016,506	1,276,218	1,409,892	510,925	3,905,965	35,539,917
1910	14,087,232	13,128,635	2,123,798	1,329,024	1,486,778	577,389	2,839,023	35,571,879
1911	14,742,801	12,622,759	2,035,694	1,346,385	1,289,991	578,039	3,564,156	36,179,825
1912	16,045,202	13,809,148	2,334,927	1,371,614	1,312,271	653,333	4,424,117	39,950,612
1913	19,938,860	13,948,315	2,439,166	1,534,878	1,668,395	621,106	3,819,133	43,969,853
1914	18,202,741	13,047,670	2,255,710	1,491,949	1,736,615	584,627	1,598,213	38,917,525
1915	14,367,221	15,439,709	2,517,713	1,194,959	1,519,507	769,433	939,164	36,747,706
1916	15,225,056	16,542,614	2,399,406	1,122,890	1·341,948	845,333	287,064	37,764,311
1917	16,161,139	16,381,663	2,351,340	994,221	1,373,851	711,509	215,706	38,189,429

* Inclusive of Opium.

† Under this head are included Export Duties on Native Opium and Produce for Native consumption carried from port to port in vessels of Foreign type and junks licensed to trade under the Treaty Tariff. The amount of these Duties (as estimated by taking it as double the Coast trade or Half Duty, excluding Opium, paid on the Produce at the ports where it is delivered, and then adding the Duty paid on Rice, Paddy, Wheat, and Native Opium) may be found in the Table below, in the column of "Duties on Native Produce exported to Chinese Ports"; and the entire Revenue may, with tolerable correctness, be apportioned between the Foreign and Home Trades as shown in the second half of the Table.

YEAR.	DUTIES ON NATIVE PRODUCE EXPORTED TO		REVENUE.		
	Foreign Countries.	Chinese Ports.	Foreign Trade.	Home Trade.	TOTAL.
	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
1906	5,237,784	4,587,922	29,272,481	6,796,114	36,068,595
1907	5,509,689	3,944,959	28,147,405	5,713,941	33,861,346
1908	6,247,209	4,736,276	26,309,014	6,592,881	32,901,895
1909	7,494.641	4,841,034	28,682,377	6,857,540	35,539,917
1910	8,379,831	4,748,804	28,699.277	6,872,602	35,571,879
1911	8,135,021	4,487,738	29,656.393	6,523,432	36,179,825
1912	8,525,549	5,283,599	32,332,086	7,618,526	39,950,612
1913	9,069,983	4,878,332	36,652,355	7,317,498	43,969,853
1914	8,536,250	4,511,420	32,150,395	6,767,130	38,917,525
1915	10,404,283	5,035.426	29,194,567	7,553,139	36,747.706
1916	11,743,802	4,798,812	30,566,093	7,198,218	37,764,311
1917	11,678,983	4,702,680	31,135,409	7,054.020	38,189,429

TOTAL REVENUE OF

(Tael Cents omitted, but reckoned

Port.	1907. Hk. Tls.	1908. Hk. Tls.	1909. Hk. Tls.	1910. Hk. Tls.	1911. Hk. Tls.
Aigun	...	...	20,251	62,911	58,152
Sansing	...	...	53,774	92,070	19,171
Harbin District					
Manchouli	...	105,459	152,131	171,480	199,107
Harbin	...	...	164,046	286,229	251,897
Suifenho	...	215,591	424,157	418,359	505,161
Hungchun	...	...	...	8,912	24,146
Lungchingtsun	...	...	...	4,229	5,565
Antung	122,770	147,366	207,548	188,567	239,327
Tatungkow	1,224	9,160	13,101	7,363	9,092
Dairen	140,738	534,964	1,100,618	1,102,804	1,359,556
Newchwang	594,413	776,097	985,494	995,241	1,050,782
Chinwangtao	154,722	104,981	186,890	230,067	198,237
Tientsin	3,215,494	2,359,447	2,752,015	3,233,916	3,421,543
Lungkow	...	...	...	...	...
Chefoo	633,243	644,914	748,338	651,265	595,914
Kiaochou	934,623	926,716	1,120,243	1,238,394	1,251,001
Chungking	447,030	640,687	585,641	537,344	378,889
Wanksien	...	...	...	...	...
Ichang	48,616	42,578	46,637	64,688	63,530
Shasi	14,390	14,218	16,179	16,065	21,209
Changsha	117,733	191,824	212,574	183,743	287,413
Yochow	31,541	105.828	51,803	28,690	60,901
Hankow	2,928,163	3,160,684	2,849,000	3,216,938	2,736,730
Kiukiang	756,025	698,145	696,566	692,357	686,639
Wuhu	668,102	862,007	775,718	650,028	434,822
Nanking	265,629	178,065	125,569	131,546	120,449
Chinkiang	1,265,567	1,234,900	1,197,564	922,635	778,693
Shanghai	11,007,454	9,613,526	10,474,939	10,481,034	11,786,662
Soochow	105,461	99,281	107,319	113,714	138,364
Hangchow	685,646	657,301	663,807	595,972	553,984
Ningpo	686,466	677,078	614,539	545,227	452,080
Wenchow	50,893	68,018	61,928	69,038	54,466
Santuao	142,814	151,159	145,269	162,228	158,982
Foochow	914,305	852,147	825,327	722,614	822,497
Amoy	887,436	784,969	862,814	801,973	872,288
Swatow	1,530,850	1,533,582	1,558,914	1,400,580	1,471,709
Canton	3,281,725	3,219,480	3,075,110	2,966,137	2,787,049
Kowloon	393,773	346,978	355,940	334,953	268,120
Lappa	368,451	336,933	302,427	383,325	335,149
Kongmoon	118,578	140,625	286,716	263,261	276,425
Samshui	185,727	220,492	476,218	301,419	276,303
Wuchow	469,569	505,040	529,704	620,934	525,230
Nanning	24,092	57,935	76,011	95,776	94,511
Kiungchow	285,449	281,137	283,379	187,594	148,879
Pakhoi	114,817	130,823	115,481	97,340	99,118
Lungchow	7,735	6,614	7,933	8,264	7,164
Mengtze	203,527	213,474	182,191	227,905	245,383
Szemao	7,427	5,845	6,368	5,821	5,637
Tengyueh	49,111	45,806	41,732	50,849	40,860
Total Hk. Tls.	33,861,345	32,901,895	35,539,917	35,571,878	36,179,825

EACH PORT, 1907–1917

for the purposes of totals)

1912. Hk. Tls.	1913. Hk. Tls.	1914. Hk. Tls.	1915. Hk. Tls.	1916. Hk. Tls.	1917. Hk. Tls.
74,828	68,976	58,794	39,958	31,921	78,860
11,690	31,442	94,325	97,944	44,573	67,958
259,698	280,526	220,702	148,761	213,572	275,588
215,682	229,253	304,803	409,663	297,806	397,551
443,596	419,656	362,158	428,319	348,432	415,877
34,455	38,518	25,448	19,239	21,882	27,961
23,158	35,560	20,944	16,122	21,704	40,337
264,347	380,323	475,319	622,318	742,739	1,099,807
6,986	1,722	4,531	1,414	678	1,226
1,407,926	**1,762,905**[4]	**1,586,886**	**1,740,035**	**2,031,843**	**3,088,517**
919,253	899,465	754,396	784,234	664,596	506,321
238,296	290,874	**415,415**	**333,479**	**268,335**	**287,620**
3,537,827	4,391,317	4,605,893	4,397,381	4,421,855	4,269,037
...	...	...	14,070	44,208	41,423
704,735	668,188	563,426	589,813	495,066	478,887
1,670,029	**1,915,889**[5]	**1,197,082**	**448,339**	**1,698,666**	**1,864,620**
404,482	411,195	506,153	510,694	520,428	466,713
...	...	...	...	...	40,980
80,483	99,363	94,585	90,580	113,583	78,517
120,850	40,493	40,850	45,477	53,972	46,949
390,335	371,154	479,676	439,118	624,513	522,725
107,136	**136,301**	**61,410**	**57,928**	**79,702**	**63,076**
3,508,589	3,608,621	3,690,407	3,867,216	4,011,017	3,767,100
857,420	586,627	635,175	616,674	640,619	614,604
845,768	451,971	485,586	469,419	545,953	389,531
170,392	227,386	299,665	312,684	383,522	352,949
932,837	595,199	548,871	467,790	381,056	387,330
11,513,062	14,475,433	12,061,197	11,410,620	11,324,517	11,214,573
189,391	128,227	178,065	272,818	222,333	233,412
544,822	518,764	411,520	308,918	313,699	277,269
449,993	483,454	536,976	485,476	479,835	390,963
54,145	47,640	53,221	64,159	61,343	60,075
147,516	**151,317**	**152,311**	**169,466**	**132,884**	**128,513**
846,534	940,066	614,551	536,028	592,709	455,907
1,052,516	704,759	537,107	525,660	428,118	365,405
1,916,331	2,031,654	1,483,674	1,296,304	1,124,792	961,635
3,076,900	3,346,736	2,856,027	2,398,884	2,222,725	2,532,322
264,052	**350,340**	**317,728**	**292,702**	**247,881**	**335,430**
326,159	**283,622**	**218,737**	**189,092**	**126,880**	**144,744**
449,335	558,707	288,350	163,248	227,328	172,239
339,010	407,515	249,319	211,883	203,871	163,719
665,091	681,108	668,614	633,513	551,496	456,561
102,879	**115,933**	**93,208**	**132,847**	**163,352**	**143,966**
226,555	256,344	187,881	193,479	152,927	157,309
114,796	103,817	75,548	86,315	81,230	69,373
3,245	**4,681**	**5,165**	**5,119**	**3,845**	**3,196**
361,244	**365,852**	**332,347**	**335,083**	**345,734**	**381,108**
6,852	**6,454**	**6,821**	**5,078**	**4,304**	**6,021**
50,825	64,482	56,633	**62,322**	**50,271**	**60,600**
39,950,612	43,969,852	38,917,524	36,747,706	37,764,311	38,189,429

GROSS VALUE OF THE FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA, 1902–1917

Year.	Gross Imports.	Exports.			Grand Total.
		Chinese Produce.	Foreign Produce (Re-exports).	Total.	
	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls.
1902 .	325,546,311	214,181,584	10,182,406	224,363,990	549,910,301
1903 .	336,853,134	214,352,467	10,114,001	224,466,468	561,319,602
1904 .	357,444,663	239,486,683	13,384,055	252,870,738	610,316,401
1905 .	461,194,532	227,888,197	14,093,741	241,981,938	703,176,470
1906 .	428,290,287	236,456,739	18,020,205	254,476,944	682,767,231
1907 .	429,071,662	264,380,697	12,670,293	277,050,990	706,122,652
1908 .	409,554,653	276,660,403	15,049,175	291,709,578	701,264,231
1909 .	430,048,606	338,992,814	11,890,539	350,883,353	780,931,959
1910 .	476,553,402	380,833,328	13,588,508	394,421,836	870,975,238
1911 .	482,576,127	377,338,166	11,072,184	388,410,350	870,986,477
1912 .	485,726,080	370,520,403	12,629,049	383,149,452	868,875,532
1913 .	586,290,431	403,305,546	16,127,874	419,433,420	1,005,723,851
1914 .	584,209.003	356,226,629	14,967,621	371,194,250	955,403,253
1915 .	477,064,005	418,861,164	22,588,286	441,449,450	918,513,455
1916 .	535,268,426	481,797,366	18,861,431	500,658,797	1,305,927,223
1917 .	577,381,339	462,931,630	27,862,565	490,794,195	1,068,175,534

STERLING VALUES AT THE RATE OF EXCHANGE FOR THE YEARS 1911–1917

Year.	Gross Imports.	Exports.			Grand Total.
		Chinese Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£
1911 .	64,844,951	50,703,865	1,487,797	52,191,662	117,036,613
1912 .	74,156,653	56,568,000	1,928,099	58,496,099	132,652,753
1913 .	88,554,283	60,915,941	2,435,980	63,351,921	151,906,204
1914 .	79,720,186	48,610,092	2,029,958	50,652,548	130,372,734
1915 .	61,869,238	54,321,130	2,929,345	57,250,475	119,119,713
1916 .	88,793,225	79,923,159	3,128,836	83,051,995	171,845,220
1917 .	124,648,211	99,940,188	6,015,121	105,955,309	230,603,520

NET VALUE OF FOREIGN TRADE OF CHINA, 1900–1917

Year.	Net Imports.[1]	Exports.	Total.	Percentage of Total Trade.	
				Imports.	Exports.
	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls.	Hk.Tls		
1900	211,070,422	158,996,752	370,067,174	57	43
1901	268,302,918	169,656,757	437,959,675	61	39
1902	315,363,905	214,181,584	529,545,489	59	41
1903	326,739,133	214,352,467	541,091,600	60	40
1904	344,060,608	239,486,683	583,547,291	58	42
1905	447,100,791	227,888,197	674,988,988	66	34
1906	410,270,082	236,456,739	646,726,821	63	37
1907	416,401,369	264,380,697	680,782,066	61	39
1908	394,505,478	276,660,403	671,165,881	58	42
1909	418,158,067	338,992,814	757,150,881	55	45
1910	462,964,894	380,833,328	843,798,222	54	46
1911	471,503,943	377,338,166	848,842,109	56	44
1912	473,097,031	370,520,403	843,617,434	56	44
1913	570,162,557	403,305,546	937,468,103	59	41
1914	569,241,382	356,226,629	925,468,011	61	39
1915	454,475,719	418,861,164	873,336,883	52	48
1916	516,406,995	481,797,366	998,204,361	52	48
1917	549,518,774	462,931,630	1,012,450,404	54	46

The values given in the three preceding tables do not include the value of goods carried coastwise, nor do they comprise the whole extent of the Foreign Trade, inasmuch as vessels of Chinese type, which are not within the control of the Imperial Maritime Customs, ply between Foreign and Chinese (both Treaty and non-Treaty) Ports.

[1] Net Imports, i.e. the value of the Foreign Goods imported direct from Foreign Countries *less* the value of the Foreign Goods re-exported to Foreign Countries during the year.

VALUE OF TOTAL IMPORTS

Country.	1907. Hk. Tls.	1908. Hk. Tls.	1909. Hk. Tls.	1910. Hk. Tls.	1911. Hk. Tls.
A.—United Kingdom and British Dominions					
United Kingdom	77,562,700	72,560,900	68,229,788	70,949,137	89,997,051
Hongkong	155,642,016	150,252,300	150,471,229	171,465,974	148,249,335
India	32,913,847	30,498,855	40,433,828	43,958,226	37,034,039
Singapore, Straits, etc.	5,347,638	5,418,410	6,778,823	8,308,521	7,735,880
Canada	1,130,374	1,202,661	1,390,947	1,157,705	552,877
Australia, New Zealand, etc.	777,952	796,506	625,870	655,753	782,516
South Africa (including Mauritius)	130,580	458	—	226	—
Total	273,505,107	260,730,090	267,930,485	296,495,542	284,351,698
B.—Europe and America (British Dominions excluded)					
Russia (European Ports)	28,131	131,795	258,602	9 553	144,962
Russia and Siberia (Land Frontier)	—	3,033,454	6,121,316	8,888,509	9,345,982
Russia (Amur and Pacific Ports)	885,220	5,487,256	9,035,102	7,040,869	7,774,727
Germany	16,177,400	14,039,232	15,188,966	21,367,748	22,456,670
France	3,158,626	2,403,458	2,181,627	2,760,932	3,018,343
Belgium	10,581,048	8,449,883	10,858,266	11,550,686	10,867,437
Netherlands	1,318,528	1,278,023	1,774,122	1,198,271	1,417,156
Austria-Hungary	1,525,966	1,136.828	1,013,364	1,775,739	1,353,290
Italy	608,813	508,524	465,882	507,627	675,115
Denmark	509,562	192,647	203,531	93,472	87,921
Norway	25,703	50,543	35,110	28,448	63,741
Sweden	92,206	110,531	177,588	312,535	846,212
Spain and Portugal (with Gibraltar)	8,461	2,921	15,194	15,811	9,742
Switzerland	85.099	71,846	38,148	44,685	35,633
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, Algeria, etc.	96,637	112,448	98,464	109,935	187,070
Mexico, Central and South America	67	11	21,863	57,837	—
United States and Hawaii	36,903,476	41,245,704	32,606,549	24,799,494	40,822,853
C.—Far East					
Japan (including Formosa)	57,461,410	52,500,960	59,975,187	76,755,559	79,506,276
Korea	1,494,204	1,320,296	2,095,853	2,382,113	2,510,224
Philippine Islands	2,576,953	1,806,726	1.660,033	532,114	416,238
Macao (Portuguese)	5,844,116	5,822,398	5,321,908	7,411,383	6,508,174
French Indo-China	9,216,818	2,687,199	6,044,872	5,981,010	3,382,835
Dutch Indies	6,136,756	6,385,078	6,838,169	5,756,050	6,724,600
Siam	831,355	46,802	88,405	569,668	69,228
Total	429,071,662	409,554,653	430,048,606	476,553,402	482,576,127

DIRECT FROM ABROAD

1912. Hk. Tls.	1913. Hk. Tls.	1914. Hk. Tls.	1915. Hk. Tls.	1916. Hk. Tls.	1917. Hk. Tls.
74,856,196	96,910,944	105,207,580	71,558,735	70,353,029	51,989,135
147,801,363	171,636,099	167,993,852	148,436,189	153,347,624	158,602,488
46,645,977	48,292,190	39,149,254	40,753,196	32,754,841	26,989,184
8,604,904	8,935,416	7,663,720	5,381,386	4,602,845	6,877,792
1,110,708	1,865,735	1,166,944	886,263	1,868,295	9,094,347
988,288	702,017	1,038,996	767,704	465,772	585,205
146	9	121	15	122	15,839
280,007,582	328,342,410	322,220,467	267,783,488	263,392,528	254,153,990
254,105	293,596	1,068,657	29,335	56,696	35,679
11,787,535	12,258,180	11,298,529	6,790,294	6,735,181	2,933,515
9,190,529	9,601,112	9,908,212	10,207,574	18,902,726	8,248,541
21,129,947	28,302,403	16,696,945	160,458	24,499	—
2,932,373	5,299,517	4,951,471	2,430,599	2,837,884	2,309,160
8,751,495	15,830,838	17,940,243	3,464,707	7,704	7,597
982,103	1,423,864	1,377,270	519,360	230,393	33,625
2,275,380	4,121,913	2,293,443	73,416	23,747	1,035
485,547	663,651	777,896	414,182	359,936	487,999
85,122	100,851	381,549	236,228	127,696	67,424
83,871	347,590	419,975	587,823	1,181,614	247,539
708,560	1,540,989	1,187,056	926,565	1,588,004	340,113
7,119	4,559	3,844	1,096	5,397	2,130
30,105	58,034	74,270	16,016	482	662
137,254	140,186	177,379	309,642	88,211	130,717
—	180	384,359	139	42	38,699
36,197,671	35,427,198	41,231,654	37,043,449	53,823,799	60,960,777
91,016,652	119,346,662	127,119,992	120,249,514	160,490,720	221,666,821
3,155,334	3,526,881	4,500,579	6,446,167	8,504,624	11,843,006
682,229	1,392,619	1,944,177	3,644,483	2,292,875	1,706,679
6,408,412	6,596,148	5,940,221	5,246,635	5,136,244	4,654,092
3,319,194	4,782,011	5,617,732	3,249,764	3,584,751	2,461,976
6,048,096	6,836,792	6,594,211	6,726,728	5,320,322	4,515,641
49,865	52,247	98,872	506,343	552,346	553,852
485,726,080	586,290,431	584,209,003	477,064,005	535,268,426	577,381,339

VALUE OF EXPORTS DIRECT

Country.	1907. Hk. Tls.	1908. Hk. Tls.	1909. Hk. Tls.	1910. Hk. Tls.	1911. Hk. Tls.
A.—United Kingdom and British Dominions					
United Kingdom . .	12,107,645	12,554,797	19,579,097	18,703,350	17,294,626
Hongkong . . .	97,226,434	92,107,963	96,919,388	108,722,925	103,669,742
India	3,179,695	4,090,111	4,813,447	4,534,619	5,809,730
Singapore, Straits Settlements, etc. . .	4,059,515	3,786,160	4,799,522	5,618,309	5,659,732
Canada . . .	701,466	1,148,138	1,254,411	1,571,079	1,283,288
Australia, New Zealand, etc.	199,563	202,791	240,626	618,371	756,526
South Africa (including Mauritius) . .	55,484	37,631	15,974	36,638	17,123
Total	117,529,802	113,927,591	127,622,465	139,805,291	134,490,767
B.—Europe and America (British Dominions excluded)					
Russia (European Ports)	5,181,658	5,214,301	4,854,235	6,501,485	8,187,577
Russia and Siberia (*via* Land Frontier). .	1,249,371	3,214,995	4,786,311	5,019,746	3,114,124
Russia (Amur and Pacific Ports)	10,770,179	21,129,320	30,792,060	34,440,706	39,416,111
Germany . . .	6,109,195	7,093,870	7,529,464	13,341,917	14,095,690
France . . .	30,658,585	32,129,193	38,598,327	38,829,532	39,102,325
Belgium . . .	3,978,652	4,387,805	5,059,763	6,540,960	6,771,506
Netherlands . . .	1,017,016	2,086,819	4,672,938	7,183,700	6,502,501
Austria-Hungary . .	757,214	1,081,665	2,354,629	1,647,236	2,206,718
Italy	8,038,074	9,849,124	8,851,046	10,826,568	9,345,924
Denmark . . .	52,666	55,330	318,790	649,599	367,714
Norway . . .	363	645	625	563	3,869
Sweden . . .	59,991	4,536	9,572	26,858	46,912
Spain and Portugal (with Gibraltar) .	76,491	277,079	197,079	372,711	388,632
Switzerland . . .	47,903	109,847	23,963	94,960	49,215
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, Algeria, etc. .	2,651,243	2,977,820	6,567,223	8,685,859	4,148,125
United States (and Hawaii)	26,597,660	23,824,059	32,446,245	32,288,831	33,965,679
Mexico and Central America . . .	78,341	23,874	29	41,093	61,045
South America . .	30,966	27,256	51,198	43,897	36,855
C.—Far East					
Japan (including Formosa) . . .	39,347,476	37,119,948	51,558,155	61,605,864	62,048,581
Korea	2,169,560	2,594,981	2,917,080	2,629,433	3,490,429
Philippine Islands .	99,154	175,078	165,587	157,366	146,195
Macao (Portuguese) .	4,091,762	4,418,406	4,674,058	4,657,317	4,744,969
French Indo-China .	1,700,077	2,333,151	1,920,085	2,111,912	1,330,638
Dutch Indies . .	510,020	665,221	1,204,423	1,432,563	1,450,965
Siam	1,577,278	1,938,489	1,817,464	1,897,361	1,825,100
Total . .	264,380,697	276,660,403	338,992,814	380,833,328	377,338,166

TO EACH COUNTRY

1912. Hk. Tls.	1913. Hk. Tls.	1914. Hk. Tls.	1915. Hk. Tls.	1916. Hk. Tls.	1917. Hk. Tls.
15,899,621	16,346,413	22,576,781	31,934,621	34,918,546	26,089,759
103,384,165	117,128,661	94.428,571	104,169,938	119,485,650	115,842,946
7,572,703	6,190,307	6,776,819	7,942,664	6,589,999	6,950,387
6,339,483	7,552,710	6,968,519	8,893,040	8,348,735	6,674,852
885,129	652,370	794,061	1,465,226	1,539,163	2,686,522
554,155	536,343	497,069	1,030,832	1,614,891	1,027,370
18,779	62,735	36,274	45,252	51,442	41,891
134,654,035	148,469,539	132,078,094	155,481,573	172,548,426	159,313,727
4,653,035	4,987,725	4,238,966	4,550,878	4,222,617	477,813
3,639,877	3,095,826	3,965,980	6,246,169	20,444,813	13,438,274
36,903,877	36,837,886	35,134,367	48,601,601	40,846,775	35,834,419
14,338,824	17,025,224	12,063,327	85	321	50
38,809.138	40,749,782	25,590,924	30,470,688	27,261,959	25,536,079
6,554,975	6,546,398	5,440,908	—	—	—
7,615,318	8,692,465	5.080,256	2,155,740	1,105,998	26,356
1,873.374	1,550,175	1,266,785	31	88	—
10,842,599	8,318,038	5,765,644	9,340,675	6,305,978	3,905,824
437,182	289,495	685,851	1,618,062	2,160,350	1,678,822
1,165	2,706	3,268	4,509	8,967	9,823
100,194	228,653	235,162	221,676	1,449,297	1,680
468,967	399,366	280,294	96,651	14,265	19,279
23,808	47,699	15,329	373	1,468	3,695
3.938,354	3,696,853	2,151,936	2,749,245	2,160,319	1,353,502
35,049,902	37,650,301	40,213,065	60,579,257	72,080,705	94,786,229
37,377	59,098	17,790	1,035	949	5,178
64,522	66,111	43,700	45,377	86,537	44,532
55,262,004	65,544,186	64,616,059	77,676,817	112,922,258	105,773,819
5,443,374	6,812,968	5,011,557	5,658,643	6,601,511	8,518,934
191,263	762,643	1,151,196	787,705	1,075,037	1,562,285
4,573,098	4,952,378	4,215,921	4,949,546	3,696,572	4,939,469
1,497,302	1,887,073	1,807,780	1,774,400	1,443,830	1,621,984
1,612,566	2,605,061	2,922,354	2,735,793	2,334,736	1,713,778
1,934,273	2,027,897	2,230,116	3,114,635	3,023,590	2,366,079
370,520,403	403,305,546	356,226,629	418,861,164	481,797,366	462,931,630

PERCENTAGES OF FOREIGN TRADE

Imports and Exports

1913–1917

Country.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Great Britain	11·4	13·8	11·5	10·3	7·5
Hongkong	29·1	28·3	28·2	26·8	26·3
India	5·5	5·0	5·4	3·8	3·2
Other British Dominions	2·0	1·9	2·1	1·9	2·7
British Empire	48·0	49·0	47·2	40·9	39·7
Japan and Korea	19·7	21·1	23·4	28·3	33·4
Russia and Siberia	6·7	6·9	8·5	8·9	5·8
United States and Philippines	7·6	9·1	11·4	12·7	15·2
France and Indo-China	5·3	3·8	4·8	3·4	3·0
Germany	4·5	2·6	—	—	—
Belgium	2·2	2·4	·3	—	—
Portugal and Macao	1·2	1·1	1·1	·8	·9
Italy	·9	0·6	1·0	·6	·4
Netherlands and Dutch Indies	1·9	1·6	1·3	·8	·6
Other Countries, less than 1 % each	2·0	1·8	1·6	1·7	1·0

Hongkong acts as a port of distribution not only for Great Britain and British dominions, but also for the continent of Europe, America, Australia, Japan and coast ports of China. As the colony publishes no detailed statistics of its own trade or of its re-exports, the origin and destination of that part of its trade that concerns China cannot be ascertained. If the values of the imports (actually retained in the United Kingdom) from China and of the exports to China, as shown in British trade returns, are taken and converted into Chinese currency at the average equivalent of the Haikuan Tael for the year, it will be found that the trade of Great Britain and India alone for the years named gave the following percentages: 1907, 21·3 per cent; 1908, 21·3 per cent; 1909, 22·2 per cent; 1910, 21 per cent; 1911, 21·3 per cent. Reckoning the total imports reaching the United Kingdom from China, inclusive of re-exports, the percentages would read 22·8; 22·8; 23·8; 22·6; 22·9 respectively.

By collating the available annual returns of all countries trading with China and with Hongkong, which for the purpose of the investigation was included in China's commercial area, the Statistical Secretary of the Imperial Maritime Customs in 1906 arrived at the following percentages for the years 1899-1904:—

COUNTRY.	EXPORTS TO—		IMPORTS FROM—		Total Imports and Exports, 1904.
	Average, 1899–1903.	1904.	Average, 1899–1903.	1904.	
	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
British Empire	22·58	20·01	48·46	50·46	37·47
Japan	12·70	15·51	18·26	16·06	16·98
United States and Philippines	16·59	18·19	14·70	12·43	14·88
France and Indo-China	19·35	17·49	3·86	2·94	9·14
Russian Empire	13·59	13·24	2·54	4·31	8·11
German Empire	3·39	4·05	5·50	5·90	5·11
Italy	7·50	7·10	0·31	0·24	3·16
Netherlands and Dutch Indies	1·30	1·05	4·06	3·32	2·36
Belgium	0·60	0·83	1·67	1·80	1·39
Switzerland	1·30	1·37	0·59	0·51	0·89
Austria-Hungary	0·67	0·78	—	—	0·33
Denmark	0·29	0·22	0·05	0·03	0·11
Portugal	0·14	0·16	—	—	0·07

The following statistics of the trade between China and Great Britain are taken from British Trade Returns:—

A. Total Value of the Merchandise consigned to the United Kingdom from China (exclusive of Bullion and Specie).

	1911. £	1912. £	1913. £	1914. £
China (exclusive of Hongkong, Macao and Weihaiwei)	4,892,744	4,933,015	4,671,608	4,718,854
Hongkong	734,628	841,616	675,276	598,876

B. Net Value of the Merchandise Consigned from China and Retained in the United Kingdom.

China	3,020,096	3,176,308	2,903,592	2,956,603
Hongkong	629,156	747,558	503,946	504,008

C. Value of the Merchandise Consigned to China, exclusive of Hongkong, Macao and Weihaiwei.

China	12,257,197	10,888,762	14,845,269	13,014,437
Hongkong	2,985,812	3,761,337	4,354,128	3,629,409

D. Declared Value of the Registered Imports of Bullion and Specie into the United Kingdom from China.

		1911.	1912.	
China	30,000	331,700	55,491	140,087
Hongkong	—	150,421	73,010	318,345

E. Declared Value of the Registered Exports of Gold and Silver Bullion and Specie from the United Kingdom to China.

		1911.	1912.	
China	998,150	1,879,550	747,610	49,650
Hongkong	27,000	34,400	104,840	—

FOREIGN GOODS: NET IMPORT

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Opium.			*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
Malwa	*Piculs*	10,369·90	23,748,171	4,485·05	23,720,269
Patna	,,	6,242·38	14,002,792	1,964·57	9,616,126
Benares	,,	1,426·49	3,139,300	695·79	3,401,737
Persian	,,	66·69	121,709	332·34	606,521
Russian Manchuria	,,	4·50	9,150	—	—
Boiled	,,	0·63	1,890	—	—
Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Total: Opium	,,	18,137·59	41,023,012	7,477·75	37,344,653
Cotton Goods.					
Shirtings:					
,, Grey, Plain, American	*Pieces*	45,915	166,553	3,172	10,252
,, ,, ,, English	,,	4,109,011	13,191,999	5,405,285	11,932,339
,, ,, ,, Indian	,,	28	120	5,874	18,668
,, ,, ,, Japanese	,,	184,218	741,279	243,826	961,723
,, ,, ,, other kinds		345	1,686	12,254	50,202
Sheetings:	,,				
,, Grey, Plain, American	,,	1,668,716	6,106,791	870,200	3,503,851
,, ,, ,, English	,,	133,883	558,032	192,357	885,456
,, ,, ,, Japanese	,,	3,397,362	9,477,858	4,499,433	11,340,531
,, ,, ,, other kinds	,,	9,080	33,201	42,820	167,685
Shirtings:					
,, White, Plain, English	,,	4,491,090	18,946,612	4,331,595	19,492,507
,, ,, ,, other kinds		—	—	—	—
,, ,, Figured	,,	70,005	341,677	165,101	800,287
,, ,, Irishes	,,	46,810	239,032	82,719	447,717
Drills, American	,,	525,291	2,111,963	145,719	628,025
,, English	,,	85,708	392,490	45,671	226,105
,, Indian	,,	497	1,535	504	1,747
,, Japanese	,,	1,677,111	6,310,358	2,190,155	7,874,764
,, other kinds	,,	2,820	14,721	1,281	6,885
Jeans, American	,,	41,201	181,563	21,009	90,859
,, English	,,	1,554,688	5,180,830	1,609,457	5,735,707
,, Japanese	,,	86,454	301,364	304,596	1,106,703
,, other kinds	,,	38,525	116,404	50,434	154,749
T-Cloths, 32 in., English	,,	1,167,640	3,210,734	725,040	2,203,393
,, ,, Indian	,,	39,100	72,783	549	1,306
,, ,, Japanese	,,	370,192	610,730	288,127	474,252
,, ,, other kinds	,,	890	3,622	2,223	5,342

FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk,. Tls.*
2,264·77	13,760,195	634·23	6,177,525	547.87	4,119,090
1,166·37	6,380,426	199·16	1,476,011	179.49	1,082,855
702·03	4,003,946	247·15	1,995,489	119.95	767,374
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
314·13	555,521	417·64	637,641	224.63	272,673
4,447·30	24,700,088	1,498·18	10,286,666	1,071.94	6,241,992
40	333	—	—	—	—
2,992,992	9,433,852	1,611,673	5,279,432	1,539,347	5,279,366
—	—	—	—	—	—
287,408	973,280	686,472	2,344,223	1,621,525	5,677,806
2,070	7,244	9,835	15,042	—	—
542,706	2,063,657	353,735	1,420,234	65,033	249,076
45,329	197,228	50,769	209,082	57,892	266,401
2,457,405	7,209,374	1,921,687	6,465,640	2,616,284	9,511,122
932	3,569	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
2,946,729	12,399,158	3,158,534	12,684,168	2,234,926	9,915,454
157,267	661,090	310,864	1,236,017	587,985	2,636,166
57,814	303,574	56,026	235,678	94,650	725,014
52,195	266,665	46,663	222,845	26,527	139,336
90,243	402,813	58,709	257,261	2,925	15,853
36,276	188,672	21,434	116,709	21,079	122,817
1,591,248	5,808,370	976,502	2,940,103	1,411,451	5,389,778
—	—	—	—	—	—
4,657	22,770	755	4,951	3,573	18,403
978,959	3,451,220	177,668	653,717	169,776	629,864
807,318	2,636,266	1,251,706	4,011,529	1,452,169	4,995,492
21,934	65,192	—	—	—	—
276,259	656,390	151,041	383,423	145,006	409,986
—	—	—	—	—	—
565,057	980,894	743,501	1,423,163	915,591	2,054,247
11,059	16,768	37	92	—	—

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Value.	1914. Net Imports. Quantity.	1914. Net Imports. Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
T-Cloths, 36 in., English	*Pieces*	116,596	339,612	77,219	236,309
,, ,, Indian	,,	429	1,716	100	400
,, ,, Japanese	,,	1,257	4,175	3,326	6,502
,, ,, Other Kinds	,,	—	—	1,736	4,940
,, Bleached, 32 in., 40 yds.	,,	—	—	—	—
Cambrics, Lawns, & Muslins, White, Dyed, & Printed	,,	331,856	327,775	397,015	505,654
,, ,, ,, 12 yds.	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, ,, 30 yds.	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, ,, 40 yds.	,,	—	—	—	—
Lenos and Balzarines, White, Dyed, and Printed	,,	124,533	263,123	141,261	316,395
Chintzes and Plain Cotton Prints	,,	1,131,920	2,791,357	1,269,207	3,434,781
Fancy Muslins	,,	—	—	—	—
Art Muslins and Cretonnes, unenumerated	,,	—	—	—	—
Plain Cotton Prints	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, ,, Russian	,,	—	—	—	—
Printed Drills, Furnitures, and Twills	,,	82,590	164,632	75,406	167,138
Printed Crape	,,	—	—	—	—
Printed Sateens, Reps, etc.	,,	148,103	536,093	205,406	739,956
,, *T*-Cloths	,,	50,948	107,565	54,186	118,053
Turkey Red Cottons & Dyed *T*-Cloths	,,	985,988	2,535,305	447,289	1,095,429
Cotton Italians, Plain, Fast Black	,,	1,745,901	9,417,211	1,788,204	10,510,494
Cotton Lastings, Plain	,,	1,001,982	4,560,269	1,070,791	5,206,283
,, ,, Figured	,,	873,310	4,238,085	676,682	3,391,932
Poplins, Plain	,,	19,797	94,287	55,496	436,526
,, Figured	,,	32,136	165,687	326,269	3,349,848
Dyed Cottons, Plain—					
Fast Black: Italians	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Venetians	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Lastings	,,	—	—	—	—
Coloured: Italians	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Venetians	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Poplins	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Lastings	,,	—	—	—	—

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
58,357	201,022	25,802	92,339	25,143	96,162
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
13,909	45,314	25,168	79,921	68,051	185,405
214,337	765,141	223,044	761,150	207,025	735,570
—	—	—	—	—	—
255,162	278,213	146,251	128,287	91,563	89,829
34,061	134,397	43,335	140,719	31,524	99,571
183,099	970,531	186,183	759,470	158,061	790,417
94,209	230,931	59,457	153,036	63,075	201,725
—	—	—	—	—	—
26,261	6,248	155,276	27,666	241,659	38,874
608,758	108,623	203,964	40,450	140,910	25,023
328,078	801,009	395,549	1,156,830	1,497,174	4,569,763
94,597	307,927	218,292	772,427	1,456	4,707
17,469	46,164	5,022	19,561	16,281	46,768
26,647	77,311	10,195	31,174	7,060	23,387
47,206	212,160	27,039	113,402	60,887	288,800
—	—	—	—	—	—
360,095	871,934	475,678	1,301,384	566,373	1,678,170
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
832,085	4,428,181	742,702	3,936,118	802,673	4,677,412
338,050	2,846,816	313,767	2,312,538	222,272	1,901,158
49,245	285,341	76,774	365,038	133,079	765,634
361,676	1,513,753	235,696	1,336,231	372,110	2,094,732
143,958	948,130	275,826	1,233,232	273,694	1,395,784
60,500	441,953	111,921	710,707	80,168	510,960
158,764	795,286	164,101	822,888	455,668	2,080,654

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifer of Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Value.	1914. Net Imports. Quantity.	1914. Net Imports. Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Dyed Cottons, Plain—					
Figured: Italians	*Pieces*	—	—	—	—
,, Venetians	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Poplins	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Lastings	,,	—	—	—	—
Shirtings, Dyed, Plain	,,	107,988	473,905	188,221	862,894
,, Hongkong-dyed, Plain	,,	120,723	363,712	120,586	375,212
Shirtings, Dyed, Figured, Brocaded, and Spotted	,,	33,477	161,783	44,923	186,692
Cotton Spanish Stripes, 64 inches	,,	47,161	193,319	46,693	203,942
Cotton Flannel, Plain, Dyed, and Printed	,,	538,541	1,970,936	346,292	1,653,094
Cotton Flannel, Plain, Dyed, and Printed, Japanese	,,	112,271	367,833	137,101	513,604
Cotton Flannel, Striped	,,	146,141	405,674	103,751	312,614
Cotton Flannel, Striped, Japanese	,,	82,077	266,742	77,406	239,607
Flannelettes, Plain, Dyed, or Printed	,,	—	—	—	—
Flannelettes, Yarn-dyed	,,	—	—	—	—
Flannelettes, Yarn-dyed Japanese	,,	—	—	—	—
Cottons, Yarn-dyed Japanese	,,	—	—	—	—
Crimps and Crêpons	,,	—	—	—	—
Japanese Cotton Crape	*Yards*	13,312,560	917,320	32,687,256	1,690,236
,, ,, Cloth	,,	309,358	32,800	306,767	33,139
Chinese Cotton Cloth Nankeens	,,	—	—	—	—
Fancy Woven Cottons	,,	5,705,911	817,420	9,935,037	1,635,026
Velvets, 22 inches	,,	5,683,791	1,640,353	4,075,191	1,221,777
Velveteens, 18 inches and 26 inches	,,	606,640	178,980	449,767	132,023
Velveteens, Embossed, and Dyed Velvet Cords	,,	283,605	81,164	76,431	30,873
Velvets and Velveteens	,,	—	—	—	—
Cotton Blankets	*Pieces*	1,104,924	630,851	581,308	342,005
,, ,, Japanese	,,	—	—	—	—
Handkerchiefs	*Dozens*	1,203,028	429,597	850,585	349,568
,, Japanese	,,	81,656	20,302	94,069	25,561

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
224,203	1,049,620	151,065	629,524	133,578	631,451
31,481	335,588	21,740	185,010	34,791	299,204
331,142	3,268,827	246,757	2,167,244	309,743	2,858,263
151,039	660,829	159,276	560,670	189,117	990,089
61,895	276,722	63,510	268,579	102,688	521,906
64,046	212,307	54,871	185,734	61,482	191,878
—	—	—	—	—	—
34,060	167,154	16,997	95,675	45,903	282,607
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
492,359	1,718,811	489,497	1,815,867	68[illegible],456	2,786,625
56,353	166,281	43,733	159,607	137,802	184,487
76,434	241,113	127,153	420,738	203,299	710,993
5,191,307	703,626	8,948,520	889,901	16,757,954	2,162,099
1,265,232	226,834	1,443,118	233,776	1,919,896	331,031
92,186,656	4,931,847	86,148,562	4,621,759	106,647,020	6,406,806
203,936	23,136	504,093	51,388	1,507,590	116,242
12,452	693,076	12,743	709,944	7,968	467,437
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
1,326,130	421,095	1,591,340	421,841	3,398,589	1,122,900
194,732	161,517	114,470	106,228	83,868	76,454
181,417	114,733	350,342	217,977	663,268	608,202
641,282	296,204	798,086	357,047	691,152	307,211
208,566	74,836	779,990	296,212	626,641	233,968

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Towels, Honeycomb and Huckaback . . .	*Dozens*	326,810	171,302	297,607	165,599
Towels, Honeycomb and Huckaback, Japanese .	,,	546,528	183,413	281,467	115,836
Towels, other kinds . .	,,	1,308,258	603,178	1,263,738	616,826
,, Japanese . .	,,	—	—	—	—
Cotton Goods, Unclassed .	*Value*	77,436,971	6,110,831	18,632,409	2,820,397
,, Yarn, English . .	*Piculs*	5,128	219,004	4,310	201,733
,, ,, Hongkong .	,,	9,682	230.681	12,715	300,129
,, ,, Indian . .	,,	1,330,567	36,397,346	1,137,224	29,631,931
,, ,, Japanese . .	,,	1,300,921	32,550,897	1,331,739	33,388,500
,, ,, other kinds .	,,	30,065	1,662,161	55,623	2,204.502
,, Gassed, Mercerised, or Dyed . . .	,,	—	—	—	—
Wooloa or Berlinette . .	,,	28	2,800	68	6,871
Cotton Thread, in Balls .	,,	4,137	348,679	4,418	336,241
,, ,, Japanese .	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, on Spools .	*Gross*	639,139	1,125,211	544,980	1,020,918
Less Excess of Re-exports over Imports . .	*Hk. Tls.*	………………		………………	
Total: Cotton Goods .	*Hk. Tls.*	………………	182,419,023	………………	178,259,045
Woollen and Cotton Mixtures.					
Alpacas, Lustres and Orleans	*Yards*	746,556	194,906	622,982	165,140
Blankets and Rugs . .	*lbs.*	—	—	—	—
Coatings and Suitings . ,	*Yards*	2,398,974	1,147,524	2,039,165	1,043,846
Union and Poncho Cloth .	,,	1,479	14,227	1,203	12,151
,, Italian Cloth . .	*Pieces*	—	—	—	—
,, Shirtings . . .	,,	131,158	78,439	80,395	41,421
Woollen and Cotton Flannel .	*Yards*	—	—	—	—
,, ,, Mixtures, Unclassed	,,	3,549,236	2,026,430	2,287,696	1,304,320
Wool and Cotton Unions, Unenumerated . . .	,,	—	—	—	—
Less Excess of Re-exports over Imports . .		—	—	—	—
Total: Woollen and Mixtures . . .	*Hk. Tls.*	………………	3,461,526	………………	2,566,878

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued.*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
238,729	163,001	208,728	157,896	159,456	154,223
1,287,669	663,674	1,406,109	809,603	1,612,359	926,419
8,314,296	1,003,206	8,169,007	1,149,378	3,875,762	786,652
270	15,831	—	—	51	1,863
12,856	282,831	1,944	46,389	3,351	92,738
1,179,360	28,792,195	1,068,328	25,638,517	955,798	30,556,278
1,445,345	35,992,280	1,351,006	34,023,383	1,005,444	29,086,944
27,015	752,786	17,824	471,802	10,587	404,983
20,721	1,280,874	27,830	1,785,626	41,063	3,120,343
—	—	—	—	813	81,316
954	93,500	1,470	121,558	4,397	366,437
2,511	208,025	2,914	235,271	576,522	1,790,237
458,078	997,283	605,527	1,654,267		
	150,053,908		136,686,268		158,994,972
....	49,698	....	6,902	....	44,705
....	150,004,210	....	136,679,386	....	158,950,267
347,579	108,766	390,148	146,557	741,305	339,325
4,232	4,034	26,918	16,539	121,573	55,672
—	—	267,544	260,444	1,189,446	1,127,398
312,111	198,836	—	—	211,043	168,149
62,048	23,521	43,375	33,358	57,271	50,762
55,849	24,903	83,606	33,365	135,509	51,059
—	—	—	—	—	—
728,597	256,714	350,530	236,309	668,261	668,944
—	—	—	—	—	—
	616,774		727,072		
....	156,840	....	3,392	....	
....	459,934	....	723,680	....	2,461,309

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Value.	1914. Net Imports. Quantity.	1914. Net Imports. Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Woollen Goods.					
Blankets and Rugs	*Pounds*	1,619,557	613,900	1,070,111	382,396
Bunting	*Pieces*	1,993	10,955	2,093	12,655
Camlets, Dutch	,,	—	—	1	8
,, English	,,	16,098	227,511	13,146	197,778
,, and Bunting	,,	—	—	—	—
Cloth, Broad, Medium, Habit, and Russian	*Yards*	352,131	504,668	178,735	297,855
Coatings and Suitings	,,	—	—	—	—
Flannel	,,	79,430	35,818	28,992	14,398
Lastings	*Pieces*	32,168	394,680	20,909	286,445
Long Ells	,,	48,732	291,919	41,900	263,046
Spanish Stripes	*Yards*	240,919	149,698	223,908	142,603
Woollen Goods, Unclassed	,,	1,079,282	1,056,143	791,420	802,580
,, and Worsted Yarn and Cord	*Piculs*	14,646	1,593,989	8,108	906,283
Less Excess of Re-exports over Imports	*Hk.Tls*	....	....	....	....
Total: Woollen Goods	*Hk.Tls*	....	4,879,281	....	3,306,047
Miscellaneous Piece Goods.					
Canvas and Cotton Duck	*Yards*	3,027,757	802,999	2,329,003	684,071
Gunny and Hessian Cloth	,,	3,989,858	336,877	3,539,232	331,420
Linen Goods and Mixtures	,,	186,864	68,369	214,250	54,499
Plushes	*Catties*	70,198	164,083	81,860	230,684
Silk Piece Goods and Mixtures	,,	137,114 198,370	1,101,768 640,650	182,927 287,197	1,581,788 862,143
Silk-stripe Cotton Cloth, Japanese	,,	5,915	8,807	16,409	16,461
Silk Piece Goods	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, ,, Mixtures	,,	—	—	—	—
,, ,, ,, Artificial	*Yards*	—	—	—	—
Imitation Fur Cloth, Silk, Wool, or Cotton	,,	—	—	—	—
Upholstery Fabrics	,,	—	—	—	—
Miscellaneous Piece Goods, Unclassed	*Value*	1,436,756	312,231	1,931,695	619,428
Total: Miscellaneous Piece Goods	*Hk.Tls*	....	3,435,784	....	4,380,494

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
226,998	160,800	72,501	54,707	169,118	171,424
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
8,345	148,862	8,623	157,912	4,495	91,035
24,709	34,712	9,242	15,892	17,874	29,585
137,012	182,690	412,551	661,289	971,796	1,558,285
17,058	9,812	18,443	13,355	—	12,344
8,896	165,600	11,580	241,582	6,994	162,923
21,530	149,241	10,225	99,818	14,020	142,908
70,658	54,609	45,946	40,487	38,600	40,858
233,279	230,255	287,005	351,605	145,224	123,881
4,748	591,592	4,269	656,911	6,238	1,343,572
....	....	....	....	....	....
....	1,728,173	....	2,293,558	....	3,676,815
2,124,956	673,341	2,445,405	733,393	2,693,937	703,805
3,116,661	295,634	6,784,238	661,830	5,114,440	538,044
147,769	40,052	268,146	66,161	237,050	56,743
12,865	53,680	14,368	46,140	23,600	83,586
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
118,876	1,024,666	97,840	819,240	105,403	890,479
217,430	624,983	258,758	777,379	349,640	1,108,863
553,484	210,731	520,130	175,772	870,270	335,367
44,976	98,795	121,333	248,917	99,725	188,651
32,813	47,428	35,995	30,590	49,672	41,355
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	391,146		282,438	—	280,871
....	3,460,456	....	3,841,860	....	4,227,764

NET IMPORTS FRO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Metals and Minerals.			*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
Aluminium	*Piculs*	136	5,211	132	5,099
,, Manufactures of .	,,	857	64,700	721	35,028
Brass and Yellow Metal :—					
Bars, Rods, Sheets, Plates and Nails . . .	,,	17,485	493,134	16,995	493,428
Wire	,,	3,268	86,417	2,994	78,710
Bars, Sheets, Wire, etc. .	,,	—	—	—	—
Unclassed . . .		5,154	205,674	7,224	257,275
Copper :—Bars, Rods, Sheets, Plates, Nails and Wire.		8,140	257,994	18,885	584,827
Ingots, Slabs, and Ore .	,,	200,736	6,129,521	261,762	6,658,327
Wire	,,	5,828	189,490	5,647	187,077
Unclassed . . .	,,	3,440	110,065	2,367	96,391
Iron and Mild Steel, New :—					
Anchors, Anvils, Castings, Chains, and Forgings .	,,	15,449	138,740	15,895	114,711
Angles and Tees . .	,,	66,853	202,715	89,437	260,413
Bars	,,	530,302	1,645,831	513,549	1,608,133
Castings, Rough . .	,,	607	1,962	1,063	3,633
Cobbles and Wire Shorts	,,	340,876	846,409	438,909	1,103,986
Hoops	,,	89,171	355,309	61,450	255,911
Joists	,,	31,515	117,263	25,390	76,446
Nail-rod	,,	123,345	326,653	111,763	300,382
Nails and Rivets . .	,,	329,290	1,440,249	215,203	974,097
Pig and Kentledge .	,,	130,918	225,009	143,436	251,791
Pipes and Tubes . .	,,	63,861	371,080	108,439	598,792
Plate Cuttings . .	,,	359,829	762,269	427,035	951,778
Rails	,,	292,855	896,056	217,600	554,073
Screws	,,	12,157	137,012	7,554	115,912
Sheets and Plates . .	,,	357,774	1,251,993	308,342	989,341
Wire	,,	60,985	282,514	35,544	166,165
Unclassed	,,	74,575	435,687	35,133	244,051
Iron and Mild Steel, Old .	,,	639,687	1,214,112	515,411	879,627
,, Galvanized : Sheets .	,,	225,646	1,410,094	145,759	898,764
,, ,, Wire. .	,,	65,939	330,079	64,692	300,856
,, Ore	,,	1,596	207	7,863	36,061
,, Steel Manufactures[1] .	,,	118,247	1,249,021	101,939	1,072,659
Lead, in Pigs and Bars .	,,	107,620	735,356	108,835	862,085
,, Tea and Sheet . .	,,	3,650	30,562	3,431	32,097
,, other Manufactures .	,,	7,065	52,448	4,993	56,605
	Value	—	—	—	—

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[1] Excluding Tinned plates, enamelled ware, needles, scales, safes, and stoves.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
94	4,762	19	1,477	54	6,252
40	7,036	365	37,446	315	41,614
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
8,948	325,657	11,459	537,883	16,329	715,874
—	136,329	—	73,875	—	87,540
6,718	250,191	9,572	416,443	10,323	466,778
34,560	1,022,096	26,055	731,121	27,658	1,135,660
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	70,268	—	183,586	—	230,977
10,538	82,044	16,575	177,718	6,713	77,305
41,773	175,427	83,874	422,572	61,801	396,718
1,183,611	776,620	367,197	2,247,878	229,955	1,529,014
—	—	—	—	—	—
118,140	332,290	84,156	327,227	100,416	474,825
51,692	249,004	100,027	856,298	89,699	794,302
—	—	—	—	15,572	93,194
19,153	71,761	12,074	63,264	—	—
214,702	1,268,709	313,510	2,635,030	300,817	2,441,881
91,630	208,381	180,187	534,084	84,522	339,099
104,903	583,269	154,568	1,162,919	186,067	1,678,589
188,881	516,804	57,795	229,137	51,254	282,717
134,883	415,447	147,421	616,905	158,333	733,034
3,184	76,056	7,822	177,527	3,588	57,347
244,021	1,191,638	331,122	2,154,976	254,142	2,131,506
6,918	44,585	8,314	85,022	24,565	233,958
50,518	395,389	47,335	460,400	46,252	467,715
401,299	823,488	299,635	740,931	255,677	748,157
113,023	932,167	95,291	1,153,121	26,527	396,643
29,787	220,706	45,814	466,709	58,875	657,360
—	—	—	—	—	—
33,856	307,581	21,984	252,820	14,551	169,778
93,981	934,744	76,825	1,082,633	78,075	961,663
2,595	37,047	8,744	128,763	16,057	206,598
3,282	46,810	4,643	73,963	6,001	91,426
—	521	—	3,168	—	331

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Manganese	*Piculs*	226	1,341	8,360	30,276
Nickel, Manufactured and Unmanufactured	,,	[1] 1,807	[1] 120,286	1,007	[1] 71,878
Quicksilver	,,	654	65,502	355	39,670
Steel, Bamboo, Bars, Hoops, Sheets, and Plates	,,	138,860	769,641	116,350	650,357
,, Tool, Cast, Wire, Rope	,,	10,841	159,677	12,799	180,944
Tin, in Slabs	,,	52,781	2,324,015	64,285	2,816,608
Tin, Manufactures of	,,	5,181	111,787	546	58,354
Tinned Plates	,,	363,366	2,438,944	419,367	2,790,499
White Metal or German Silver	,,	4,108	203,960	2,564	130,406
Zinc, Spelter	,,	8,761	107,254	8,491	92,004
,, Sheets, Plates, etc.	,,	25,266	333,349	9,258	118,549
,, other Manufactures	,,	7,329	93,016	4,803	56,343
Metals & Minerals, Unclassed	,,	11,518	243,548	15,095	280,213
Ores—					
Copper	,,	—	—	—	—
Iron	,,	—	—	—	—
Lead	,,	—	—	—	—
Manganese	,,	—	—	—	—
Zinc	,,	—	—	—	—
Unclassed	,,	—	—	—	—
Totals: Metals, etc.	*Hk. Tls.*	....	28,973,156	....	28,420,632
Less excess of Rs. Exports over Imports		—	—	—	—
Sundries—					
Animals, Living—					
Cattle	*No.*	7,968	148,023	3,660	104,700
Goats	,,	770	1,894	585	1,630
Horses	,,	1,014	63,004	1,287	62,816
Pigs	,,	24,217	282,205	20,029	210,076
Poultry	,,	21,695	7,941	11,936	4,964
Sheep	,,	—	—	—	—
Other kinds	,,	523	7,259	875	8,137
Aniseed, Star	*Piculs*	13,878	214,972	11,838	187,123
Arms and Munitions—					
Of War	*Value*	—	6,738,454	—	4,448,923
Sporting	,,	—	—	—	—
Asbestos	,,	—	64,244	—	92,397

[1] Including manufactures of.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	—	—	—	—	—
1,101	110,723	2,089	184,969	738	53,276
198	27,808	361	76,698	239	51,279
39,900	312,389	42,144$\frac{5}{8}$	377,404	75,637	893,053
7,486	127,267	13,946	299,197	9,489	209,935
41,398	2,040,082	47,058	2,415,699	42,990	2,572,100
345	8,725	381	6,843	441	7,129
397,044	3,137,986	347,489	3,271,667	238,930	2,498,445
487	30,562	338	30,559	394	25,570
276	9,409	654	26,775	1,029	18,643
1,028	30,876	6,266	230,769	6,200	157,973
187	5,456	921	56,374	1,557	28,960
111,077	683,828	112,533	920,279	115,236	760,935
	26,814	—	136,702	—	112,516
—	—	—	—	2	3
80,770	14,305	496,714	85,419	463,529	82,949
11	15	427	814	8	38
68	195	154	425	159	1,089
—	—	—	—	139	1,736
921	3,094	128,343	64,141	61,996	44,715
....	18,076,361	....	26,219,630	....	25,168,262
—	3,586	—	161,099	—	30,521
	18,072,775		26,058,531		25,137,741
5,749	176,276	2,549	76,239	4,045	127,699
224	809	2,810	8,166	668	2,290
590	18,752	275	14,652	1,009	22,861
20,022	185,974	10,100	110,461	8,675	89,851
58,790	19,931	51,401	9,695	64,801	8,322
183	1,680	134	570	6	20
1,115	5,201	2,367	4,708	1,265	2,935
13,625	238,870	12,805	243,763	14,937	270,636
—	200,222	—	130,554	—	166,532
—	18,059	—	78,390	—	56,869
—	80,969	—	121,181	—	172,588

NET IMPORTS FRO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Bags of all kinds	*Pieces*	32,049,708	3,114,870	37,250,810	3,669,89
Beans and Peas	*Piculs*	369,341	1,015,208	762,634	2,231,32
Bedsteads, Iron	*Pieces*	23,250	231,531	20,028	212,07
,, Brass	,,	—	—	—	—
Belting, Machine	*Value*	—	267,902	—	277,55
Betel-nuts	*Piculs*	59,813	289,196	53,940	264,17
Bicho de Mar (Sea-slugs)	,,	38,264	1,165,768	36,329	1,189,06
Birds' Nests	*Catties*	85,773	654,451	81,564	693,89
Biscuits	*Value*	—	179,933	—	223,24
Books, Charts, Music, etc.	,,	—	546,937	—	475,10
Borax, Crude and Refined	*Piculs*	4,901	43,663	3,049	29,76
Bottles, Empty	*Value*	—	274,071	—	319,85
Boxes, Fancy	*Gross*	139,447	162,171	109,177	148,40
Braid, Llama	*Value*	2,532	364,956	1,713	263,45
,, other kinds	,,	—	451,116	—	334,46
Bran of all kinds	*Piculs*	2,110,089	3,314,718	1,761,954	2,728,21
Bricks and Tiles	*Pieces*	3,751,101[1]	—	—	—
Building Materials and Fittings	*Value*	12,266	694,922[1]	4,176,280[1]	1,022,54
Butter	*Piculs*	—	582,266	14,205	712,83
Buttons, Brass and Fancy	*Gross*	1,439,662	524,051	845,991	380,8
Candlemaking Materials	*Value*	11,858	215,063	20,211	415,5
Candlewick	*Piculs*	—	—	—	—
Stearine	,,	—	—	—	—
Unclassed	*Value*	—	—	—	—
Candles	,,	50,383	579,787	62,591	808,6
Cardamoms	*Piculs*	7,349	196,958	5,295	145,1
Carpets and Carpeting	*Value*	—	117,247	—	137,5
Casks, Empty	,,	—	51,334	—	194,9
Caviare	,,	—	22,986	—	40,4
Celluloid	,,	—	63,980	—	59,9
Cement	*Piculs*	618,019	608,221	889,530	901,2
Cereals:—					
Barley	,,	5,117	29,822	8,057	41,8
Maize	,,	8,274	16,025	12,533	38,9
Oats	,,	25,557	82,631	14,447	48,7
Rice	,,	5,414,896	18,383,719	6,774,266	21,843,2
Rye	,,	1,176	3,884	1,892	7,5
Wheat	,,	2,032	6,144	998	3,1
Other Kinds	,,	12,969	99,515	14,186	93,0
Charcoal	,,	221,541	222,535	165,975	167,3

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[1] Including bricks and tiles

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
47,829,747	5,241,044	42,171,817	3,386,163	46,947,016	5,675,315
1,360,389	2,317,648	428,285	1,134,520	979,353	2,462,936
11,086	130,898	8,988	103,597	10,023	119,522
489	22,658	553	36,958	678	20,948
—	354,613	—	592,055	—	334,284
61,331	304,198	55,281	293,548	60,394	292,506
50,096	1,671,467	44,768	1,514,548	41,600	1,407,251
91,111	736,665	88,413	687,365	84,882	708,091
—	152,720	—	191,824	—	91,505
—	432,183	—	499,716	—	513,410
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	357,068	—	336,744	—	307,389
24,979	43,899	36,858	59,883	40,735	61,360
418	73,833	126	22,536	75	15,616
—	95,757	—	114,452	—	218,305
1,952,747	2,988,803	2,299,858	3,370,514	2,366,834	2,835,511
2,177,741	175,149	3,658,420	271,634	7,070,302	543,809
—	673,576	—	933,546	—	896,080
11,815	506,920	8,469	509,715	7,094	410,062
788,801	251,723	1,468,446	362,556	2,935,646	755,724
—	—	—	—	—	—
293	21,788	406	27,412	543	39,210
13,133	287,544	27,488	582,939	18,530	370,467
—	9,901	—	3,048	—	3,715
31,831	465,371	23,232	359,591	44,894	831,729
5,788	165,976	6,510	195,624	9,550	297,299
—	205,583	—	358,521	—	241,232
—	223,674	—	573,307	—	389,837
—	22,814	—	10,057	—	7,468
—	37,679	—	29,359	—	201,910
701,119	694,046	826,878	964,104	705,734	791,446
10,241	49,858	8,863	32,127	54,320	110,104
55,471	109,172	66,111	147,527	84,330	176,693
5,151	14,013	6,350	22,011	449	1,209
8,476,058	25,336,328	11,284,023	33,789,045	9,837,182	29,584,093
—	—	—	—	—	—
2,585	10,336	59,555	131,006	36,169	79,933
37,723	133,582	40,878	172,254	23,749	137,762
112,998	113,929	136,074	204,228	101,478	101,786

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Charts, Maps, Pictures, Products of the Graphic Arts .	*Value*	—	40,414	—	41,260
Cheese	*Piculs*	2,920	109,773	2,514	97,221
Chemical Products (not including Match-making Materials, Medicines and Soda)	*Value*	—	486,272	—	418,560
Chinaware, Fine and Coarse (including Crockery and Earthenware) . . .	*Mille*	—	1,210,833	—	1,013,649
Cigarettes	,,	6,209,037	12,589,300	6,045,408	13,321,616
Cigarette making materials not otherwise classified .	*Value*	—	161,934	—	114,766
Cigars	*Mille*	38,565	478,492	26,897	383,396
Cinnamon	*Piculs*	676	65,150	865	86,309
Clocks and Watches . .	*Pieces*	549,180	932,303	505,278	812,508
Clothing, Hats, Shoes, and Boots (other than india-rubber and leather) . .	*Value*	—	6,501,230	—	4,602,172
Cloves and Spices . .	*Piculs*	7,901	94,330	7,554	104,173
Coal	*Tons*	1,690,892	9,420,758	1,600,954	8,469,852
Cocaine	*Ounces*	—	—	13	3
Cocoa, Crude	*Piculs*	41	4,020	112	10,970
,, & Chocolate, Prepared	*Pounds*	132,692	59,916	143,936	75,163
Coffee	*Catties*	263,133	81,243	250,246	79,228
Coke	,,	5,597	71,686	5,601	66,286
Confectionery (excluding Chocolate and Cocoa) .	,,	—	326,686	—	292,589
Cordage	*Piculs*	22,301	395,034	30,065	375,623
Corks	*Value*	—	54,501	—	63,402
Cotton Gins, and Parts .	,,	3,079	106,655	372	50,260
,, Raw	*Piculs*	134,735	3,017,318	126,488	2,872,118
,, Wadding . . .	,,	5,231	122,458	6,070	135,151
Covers, Bed and Table . .	*Value*	—	515,659	—	366,919
Crucibles	,,	—	146,901	—	172,846
Cutlery and Electro-plated-ware	,,	—	266,568	—	176,655
Dyes, Colours, and Paints :—					
Aniline . . .	,,	—	5,401,820	—	3,250,305
Bark, Mangrove . .	*Piculs*	107,725	174,602	152,284	236,549
Cinnabar . . .	,,	1,714	130,195	1,365	104,437
Indigo, Artificial . .	,,	319,575	9,633,157	250,127	8,740,257

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	42,641	—	66,433	—	89,619
2,062	88,921	2,022	97,545	1,164	47,989
—	1,170,572	—	1,802,662	—	1,771,660
—	779,591	—	967,515	—	1,318,037
5,245,852	12,138,426	6,656,244	25,998,080	7,909,103	31,263,027
—	327,793	—	695,635	—	821,713
32,584	533,679	42,608	845,018	39,343	589,536
1,100	118,782	973	89,882	1,045	94,739
338,270	579,320	268,952	488,829	338,279	663,879
—	3,631,144	—	4,596,513	—	4,357,749
3,485	68,083	4,163	101,899	3,908	76,352
1,400,382	8,103,279	1,421,991	8,975,836	1,444,124	15,041,834
—	—	—	—	—	—
31	2,970	300	15,738	—	—
111,883	62,021	192,452	99,749	224,769	103,910
271,942	79,991	829,761	228,023	4,831,695	1,004,304
5,219	67,094	4,254	56,234	4,161	85,608
—	230,964	—	247,829	—	197,684
29,235	399,611	33,514	519,899	43,382	545,070
—	76,366	—	74,819	—	109,806
—	100,942	—	85,886	—	35,528
364,390	6,651,841	407,644	8,068,790	300,128	6,406,224
6,219	163,441	—	—	7,320	176,627
—	329,162	—	418,960	—	494,051
—	48,713	—	170,054	—	194,083
—	121,978	—	172,075	—	486,611
—	—	—	—	—	—
158,069	245,129	119,041	241,618	102,289	166,742
838	95,565	807	144,758	1,340	224,676
—	—	—	—	1,299	180,458

NET IMPORTS FROM

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Dyes, Colours, and Paints :—					
Indigo, Vegetable	*Piculs*	12,620	56,939	9,189	45,762
Sapanwood	,,	23,891	51,592	16,839	36,427
Vermilion	,,	5,749	243,533	3,680	180,958
Dyes, Unclassed	,,	135,649	956,500	144,557	751,758
Paints and Paint Oil	,,	72,764	862,737	66,445	833,444
Eggs, Game, and Poultry	*Pieces*	3,469,003	32,258	3,424,400	29,785
Electrical Materials and Fittings	*Value*	—	2,322,339	—	2,726,394
Elephants' Teeth and Tusks	*Piculs*	23,690	82,649	22,477	74,347
Emery and Corundum (Powder, Cloth, and Paper)	*Value*	—	67,084	—	89,456
Enamelledware	,,	—	1,148,395	—	882,939
Explosives	*Piculs*	6,151	189,659	5,357	112,745
Fans, Palm-leaf	*Pieces*	47,748,439	284,340	41,990,848	316,186
,, Paper	,,	4,423,898	150,474	4,115,356	132,349
Felt and Felt Sheathing	*Value*	—	34,874	—	48,125
Fish and Fishery Products (not including Bicho de Mar, Isinglass, and Seaweed)	*Piculs*	1,473,288	12,974,540	1,584,243	13,188,798
Flour	,,	2,596,821	10,300,612	2,166,318	9,016,589
Fodder	,,	929	1,377	12,147	5,564
Foodstuffs, unclassed	*Value*	—	—	—	—
Fruits, Dried	,,	87,125	762,188	89,655	896,209
,, (Fresh)	*Piculs*	217,617	653,316	215,083	727,704
Furniture, and Materials for making	*Value*	—	546,166	—	604,514
Gas Fittings	,,	—	87,565	—	153,684
Gasolene, Benzine, Naphtha, Petrol, etc.	*Galls.*	465,577	107,796	816,292	213,393
Ginseng	*Catties*	334,816	1,649,396	452,166	2,066,312
Glass, Window	*Boxes*	311,950	1,141,644	253,168	987,997
,, and Glassware	*Value*	—	870,880	—	625,362
Gloves, Leather	*Pairs*	58,845	25,439	11,560	7,099
Glue	*Piculs*	14,569	270,924	15,433	297,098
Glycerine	,,	4,261	135,891	3,024	103,157
Ground-nuts	,,	334,262	1,422,356	201,636	848,050
Gums (Myrrh, Olibanum, etc.)	,,	16,437	136,836	16,885	133,539
Gypsum	,,	96,385	77,930	64,735	47,453
Haberdashery	*Value*	—	1,113,162	—	772,639

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
31,719	156,302	54,685	576,079	52,836	611,654
43,725	105,760	106,056	352,974	50,117	141,344
1,443	113,510	1,654	177,351	2,442	222,529
126,957	617,936	96,094	652,422	139,089	934,856
117,782	1,275,303	121,216	1,456,075	113,136	1,212,399
3,447,531	32,585	4,675,441	41,004	10,740,907	73,357
—	2,042,890	—	3,431,571	—	4,027,243
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	97,008	—	166,226	—	109,380
—	461,026	—	643,043	—	770,723
2,911	133,196	3,837	221,755	3,363	216,470
50,743,758	309,586	51,335,257	442,292	42,838,383	422,030
4,797,569	152,081	3,508,131	86,642	5,632,552	169,699
—	39,067	—	67,099	—	35,031
1,678,026	14,834,506	1,620,767	13,751,637	1,726,260	14,144,735
177,367	865,842	233,464	1,174,544	678,849	2,818,576
41,335	21,039	14,517	7,674	24,213	13,727
—	1,697,113	—	1,377,648	—	862,052
87,459	671,105	107,950	850,305	103,778	848,642
163,384	548,806	205,782	648,410	305,471	892,753
—	722,309	—	1,049,768	—	1,062,474
—	70,734	—	176,769	—	254,050
693,129	252,479	685,906	335,925	1,183,895	551,118
412,903	3,290,877	383,676	3,761,505	380,748	5,172,292
102,517	805,892	203,192	1,668,870	183,302	1,594,295
—	413,727	—	611,717	—	835,841
—	—	—	—	—	—
15,659	316,130	18,118	370,066	11,621	275,709
469	21,301	2,087	201,757	748	41,519
203,142	1,007,398	177,595	960,472	434,502	2,403,620
27,516	305,413	33,282	469,005	25,905	421,182
38,459	34,844	21,528	27,995	16,990	20,044
—	728,822	—	855,955	—	467,947

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Hair (Animal) and Feathers .	*Piculs*	14,907	132,436	10,654	103,077
Hemp	,,	21,312	245,574	18,275	251,192
Hides and Skins, undressed .	,,	17,219	384,621	21,444	549,857
Honey	,,	2,004	38,856	1,975	21,760
Hops	,,	312	22,081	164	15,701
Horns, Deer.	,,	513	108,309	1,009	107,977
,, Rhinoceros . .	,,	1,252	67,401	1,101	67,254
Hosiery	*Dozens*	2,109,301	1,913,703	1,745,677	1,369,926
India-rubber, Gutta-percha .	*Value*	261	16,188	396	26,318
India-rubber, Gutta-percha, Manufactures of all kinds (including Boots and Shoes)	,,	—	360,529	—	270,200
Instruments, Musical: Automatic	,,	—	213,804	—	212,341
Instruments, Musical: Pianos, etc.	,,	—	182,841	—	137,202
Instruments and Apparatus, Scientific (including Optical Goods, etc.) . . .	,,	—	739,528	—	872,009
Isinglass	*Piculs*	5,405	267,979	4,627	230,754
Ivory	*Catties*	—	—	—	—
Jadestone	*Piculs*	3,884	177,659	3,660	171,926
Jewellery, Real and Imitation	*Value*	—	140,661	—	178,545
Lace and Trimmings . .	,,	—	774,025	—	417,646
Lamps and Lampware . .	,,	—	1,356,423	—	1,068,621
Leather	*Piculs*	109,295	7,178,921	91,056	5,971,591
,, Manufactures of .	*Value*	—	356,639	—	321,801
,, Imitation, and Oilcloth	,,	—	197,356	—	105,723
Liquid Fuel	*Tons*	12,065	125,104	9,196	146,187
Looking Glasses and Mirrors	*Value*	—	376,712	—	291,662
Lung-ngans	*Piculs*	10,447	94,994	13,984	149,631
Macaroni and Vermicelli .	,,	99,791	794,163	97,827	813,221
Machine Tools	*Value*	—	50,454	—	96,073
Machinery, Agricultural .	,,	—	112,700	—	53,145
Machinery, Propelling (as Boilers, Turbines, etc.)	,,	—	642,209	—	1,050,640
,, for the Textile Industry (as Carding, Colour-printing, Weaving, and other Machines, except Cotton Gins)	,,	—	836,864	—	2,035,644

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
8,381	223,974	9,887	296,431	8,591	258,100
16,188	232,439	17,152	288,035	19,321	286,524
18,315	485,360	16,338	569,232	16,354	619,976
1,581	17,953	2,497	46,987	1,461	36,611
381	15,904	107	3,544	251	14,128
—	675,581	—	626,619	—	409,925
1,463	99,349	393	26,625	1,522	126,631
1,367,110	922,955	2,091,983	1,934,817	2,544,943	2,696,668
373	24,232	341	16,691	8	2,164
—	539,104	—	421,350	—	551,845
—	228,364	—	157,998	—	128,651
—	91,697	—	131,570	—	102,768
—	445,654	—	357,593	—	371,295
4,291	234,666	5,959	341,982	8,444	659,581
29,953	69,937	41,554	123,867	64,085	160,038
5,764	254,029	4,982	235,627	4,787	229,380
—	148,934	—	301,104	—	200,024
—	87,762	—	160,537	—	308,809
—	741,375	—	670,936	—	793,627
92,892	5,532,671	113,941	7,541,506	132,449	9,688,034
—	215,678	—	245,900	—	245,787
—	45,930	—	89,781	—	149,013
9,094	157,453	5,183	109,094	18,261	303,168
—	232,521	—	318,246	—	443,162
7,008	81,443	25,372	289,649	22,803	259,013
111,162	1,150,417	92,644	912,865	75,063	904,032
—	70,182	—	62,673	—	175,807
—	159,798	—	204,520	—	108,190
—	676,525	—	576,503	—	327,528
—	1,412,842	—	1,930,657	—	1,216,153

NET IMPORTS FROM

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Quantity.	1913. Net Imports. Value.	1914. Net Imports. Quantity.	1914. Net Imports. Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Machinery for Brewing, Distilling, Sugar Manufactures, etc.	*Value*	—	48,518	—	16,353
,, other kinds, and Parts of Machinery	,,	—	3,009,710	—	4,783,861
Machines, Sewing and Knitting, and Accessories	*Piculs*	—	894,224	—	554,265
Malt	,,	7,721	54,251	1,926	17,462
Manures (including Chemical)	,,	908,557	948,476	852,198	905,326
Margarine and Artificial Butter	,,	583	13,691	489	11,618
Matches	*Gross*	28,448,155	6,341,158	20,408,313	4,941,316
Match-making Materials	*Value*	—	495,657	—	505,083
Mats of all kinds	*Pieces*	6,468,232	502,184	7,538,640	667,744
Meats (Prepared or Preserved)	*Value*	—	328,507	—	382,846
Medicines	,,	—	4,026,874	—	4,113,964
Milk, Condensed, in Tins	*Dozs.*	483,720	782,078	522,584	893,064
Molasses	,,	283,815	318,300	672,453	804,271
Morphia	*Ozs.*	—	—	26,092	124,733
Mushrooms	*Piculs*	16,190	662,687	16,394	702,816
Needles	*Mille*	4,929,710	1,045,174	2,466,182	545,682
Oil, Engine	*Galls.*	2,449,586	708,467	3,159,774	984,728
,, Kerosene, American	,,	112,459,925	14,349,720	160,428,389	23,871,454
,, ,, Borneo	,,	23,603,943	3,443,700	22,616,385	3,477,173
,, ,, Japanese	,,	34,265	5,262	514,470	98,399
,, ,, Russian	,,	5,970,271	1,177,292	5,234,063	1,117,596
,, ,, Sumatra	,,	41,915,648	6,426,871	36,670,894	5,867,745
,, ,, other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Oils, Lubricating	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Vegetable, of all kinds	,,	1,590,876	1,737,181	1,148,496	947,776
Oil Cake	*Piculs*	322	846	231	694
Oil Tanks and Fittings	*Value*	—	62,541	—	372,555
Optical Goods, Telescopes, etc.	,,	567,779	137,712	628,073	63,754
Paper	*Piculs*	971,347	6,120,892	811,754	5,570,093
	Value	—	1,048,363	—	900,675
Pearls, Real	,,	—	—	—	26,606
Pepper, Black and White	*Piculs*	51,985	991,434	37,664	757,506
Perfumery	*Value*	—	446,354	—	358,104
Photographic Materials	,,	—	314,728	—	297,876
Plants and Flowers, Living	,,	—	29,812	—	31,112

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	24,672	—	11,517	—	87,322
—	2,183,597	—	3,303,027	—	3,524,770
—	287,485	—	295,306	—	431,915
5,569	55,366	1,800	12,703	7,290	44,459
777,700	924,688	509,132	595,987	817,146	779,260
452	14,247	1,084	33·746	—	—
20,973,434	5,279,521	20,620,717	6,975,886	15,594,320	5,555,443
—	937,781	—	1,479,336	—	1,394,263
8,198,603	654,184	5,726,316	531,628	4,547,462	531,221
—	309,799	—	349,581	—	210,177
—	4,082,091	—	5,106,798	—	5,696,128
375,717	684,442	464,567	830,806	455,502	837,090
414,588	504,063	279,867	368,548	184,440	255,465
—	—	—	—	—	—
19,249	889,997	18,138	841,076	19,218	857,656
399,457	118,904	396,420	316,037	1,155,038	1,052,436
—	—	—	—	—	—
128,939,563	18,819,379	108,775,017	23,258,682	107,446,239	24,048,907
23,890,925	3,703,902	10,447,512	2,036,400	9,777,614	1,763,464
1,226,263	243,672	6,406,400	1,553,206	5,430,593	1,286,372
857,155	222,555	1,047,372	624,671	300,679	104,738
20,136,405	5,037,976	19,204,569	4,110,132	33,633,346	5,952,114
19,800	3,960	1,509,383	233,282	1,322,470	199,061
4,408,912	1,416,998	4,358,000	1,833,007	3,287,494	1,139,600
1,344,339	967,656	2,043,864	2,138,520	564,162	243,190
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	230,107	—	32,025	—	61,547
—	—	—	—	—	—
591,177	4,595,174	798,475	8,208,850	529,796	5,559,986
—	1,762,483	—	1,319,787	—	689,307
—	136,092	—	110,785	—	50,139
51,875	1,112,684	61,892	1,438,957	70,070	1,525,446
—	464,194	—	885,885	—	1,004,462
—	238,636	—	439,467	—	325,049
—	31,124	—	43,418	—	43,273

NET IMPORTS FRO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Potatoes	*Piculs*	15,475	24,859	7,618	8,88
Printing and Lithographic Materials	*Value*	—	400,297	—	278,17
Railway Plant and Materials	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Materals—					
Sleepers . . .	*Pieces*	—	—	—	—
Not otherwise classified .	*Value*	—	4,317,694[1]	—	6,500,08
Rattans	*Piculs*	134,942	812,638	119,354	725,83
Safes and Strong-room Doors	*Value*	—	116,758	—	97,82
Saltpetre	*Piculs*	59,937	415,105	52,811	378,42
Sandalwood	,,	83,766	802,780	122,751	1,020,96
Scales and Balances . .	*Value*	—	81,366	—	80,03
Seaweed and Agar-agar .	*Piculs*	635,978	1,714,009	615,878	1,677,08
Seeds of all kinds. . .	,,	52,039	481,447	58,666	519,70
Ships and Boats, Materials for, not included under Metals or Timber . .	*Value*	—	98,522	—	53,86
Shoes and Boots, Leather and other Materials . . .	*Pieces*	292,632	467,489	227,174	561,97
Shooks, for making Casks .	*Value*	—	583,380	—	657,31
Silk and Cotton Ribbons .	,,	—	516,493	—	247,72
,, and Silk Products . .	,,	—	—	—	—
Silk, Noil Yarn . . .	*Piculs*	627	48,389	639	47,83
Skins (Furs) . . .	*Pieces*	592,195	289,896	752,216	296,79
Soap	*Value*	—	2,684,511	—	2,529,97
Soda	*Piculs*	488,255	1,127,810	608,937	1,553,36
Soy	,,	40,174	186,630	48,155	208,79
Spirits of Wine . . .	*Galls.*	796,522	358,869	842,803	361,51
Starch	*Piculs*	2,529	14,181	2,226	12,79
Stationery	*Value*	—	1,291,135	—	1,146,13
Stones, Marble, Granite, etc.	,,	—	174,758	—	154,23
Stores, Household . .	,,	—	3,814,307	—	2,796,23
Stoves and Grates . .	,,	—	311,112	—	186,40
Sugar, Brown . . .	*Piculs*	2,277,593	9,236,844	1,786,671	7,208,27
,, White . . .	,,	1,933,067	10,633,853	1,628,211	8,874,90
,, Refined . . .	,,	2,627,907	14,592,513	2,487,654	12,745,19
,, Candy . . .	,,	273,161	1,843,260	177,948	1,295,64
,, Cane	,,	153,259	157,021	146,741	148,96
Sulphur	,,	30,477	75,474	26,044	68,48
Sulphuric Acid . . .	,,	21,364	63,819	25,766	78,01

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[1] Including 1,536,136 sleepers.

[2] Including 2,930,527 sleepers.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	—	—	—	—	469,851
—	274,009	—	410,498	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
1,694,001	1,556,939	1,746,571	1,874,773	1,051,241	1,084,468
—	972,320	—	1,967,360	—	882,171
160,002	1,110,464	144,855	1,040,606	136,416	806,184
—	84,639	—	175,757	—	102,916
21,059	305,815	1,376	34,266	1,683	23,070
117,663	1,074,602	83,650	826,326	99,934	944,261
—	57,035	—	121,818	—	94,583
631,220	1,767,578	644,970	1,814,086	593,480	1,656,974
58,348	651,018	68,939	703,293	61,092	651,271
—	170,500	—	13,635	—	24,059
136,803	300,926	115,226	181,213	432,968	1,235,739
—	343,531	—	813,724	—	1,125,385
—	55,024	—	74,238	—	68,965
—	52,980	—	196,852	—	274,556
—	—	—	—	—	—
625,934	362,735	1,318,238	509,562	1,206,146	540,883
—	2,374,126	—	2,535,307	—	3,681,928
481,148	1,328,061	42,136	343,177	216,031	849,447
53,207	242,658	37,699	186,611	42,299	208,353
1,524,991	802,472	832,023	387,882	1,204,754	573,411
2,322	14,210	3,632	24,116	2,542	18,793
—	744,591	—	1,069,815	—	979,732
—	164,438	—	152,753	—	177,270
—	1,603,975	—	1,877,181	—	1,720,439
—	128,078	—	98,259	—	81,444
1,680,275	7,931,798	1,904,936	8,788,958	1,880,502	7,779,948
987,023	7,128,200	930,943	6,188,234	1,111,107	6,805,555
1,979,031	13,836,822	2,158,879	19,578,681	2,980,369	27,965,662
130,251	955,901	176,281	1,604,555	225,103	2,240,873
131,202	137,887	110,314	116,046	125,875	137,080
19,055	69,942	21,270	106,058	25,915	92,138
—	—	—	—	—	—

NET IMPORTS FRO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Tea—					
British India and Ceylon	*Piculs*	146,556	3,929,383	95,650	2,797,99
Japan (Formosa)	,,	14,091	113,339	9,507	100,03
Java	,,	33,501	742,274	39,704	1,046,72
Other kinds	,,	30,076	551,236	25,270	278,76
Telegraph and Telephone Materials	*Value*	—	719,451	—	567,13
Thread, Gold and Silver, Imitation	*Piculs*	648	121,489	402	79,18
Timber, Hard-wood	*Cub. ft.*	2,660,682	1,073,986	3,537,052	1,502,83
,, Soft-wood	*Sq. feet*	164,847,623	4,037,511	198,988,023	4,748,95
Tin-foil	*Piculs*	5,295	391,540	3,632	232,51
Tobacco	,,	161,586	3,572,560	118,354	2,693,24
Tobacconists' Sundries	*Value*	—	250,096	—	169,63
Toilet Requisites	,,	—	895,652	—	729,26
Tools (hand)	,,	—	273,677	—	299,38
Toys and Games	,,	—	298,926	—	303,63
Trunks and Suit Cases	,,	—	37,541	—	80,43
Turpentine	*Galls.*	34,328	23,227	26,571	20,19
Umbrellas, European	*Pieces*	776,331	483,878	804,240	501,66
,, European and American	,,	—	—	—	—
Umbrellas, Japanese	*Pieces*	2,265,119	973,922	2,420,189	999,29
,, Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Varnish	*Piculs*	8,086	193,442	7,119	157,42
Vegetables (Dried and Fresh, excluding Peas, Beans, and Potatoes)	,,	91,143	390,858	78,700	383,34
Vehicles—					
Locomotives and Tenders	*Value*	—	768,628	—	2,514,84
Railway Carriages and Wagons (including Tramcars)	,,	—	1,193,823	—	2,222,99
Traction and Road Engines	,,	—	2,996	—	10,55
Motor-cars	,,	—	485,182	—	521,95
Motor-cycles	,,	—	12,917	—	34,18
Velocipedes (Bicycles, etc.)	,,	—	128,957	—	140,35
Other kinds	,,	—	950,995	—	624,88
Waters, Aerated and Mineral	,,	—	198,488	—	246,69
Wax, Paraffin	*Piculs*	156,730	1,168,617	175,605	1,418,07

OREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
109,786	3,155,024	148,468	4,773,957	81,249	2,252,870
4,048	50,578	4,791	76,206	11,600	174,596
33,931	781,232	56,326	1,660,449	57,429	1,425,553
33,958	657,843	22,493	225,380	39,166	623,186
—	410,203	—	611,143	—	649,511
72	42,570	113	38,957	232	85,518
2,125,598	953,554	1,891,758	947,703	2,836,342	1,482,322
82,522,746	2,317,911	223,975,813	7,102,364	77,935,786	2,918,609
4,345	295,078	8,777	430,430	7,318	347,707
76,746	1,502,033	147,132	3,262,300	153,927	3,632,924
—	14,361	—	13,460	—	14,347
—	144,368	—	169,696	—	173,156
—	681,370	—	727,917	—	732,774
—	262,975	—	256,805	—	387,775
—	309,755	—	533,047	—	532,925
—	122,874	—	278,607	—	441,514
—	—	—	—	—	—
534,620	372,264	430,029	293,046	326,883	228,512
2,134,593	907,161	2,161,677	928,174	2,145,108	937,334
60,279	22,795	13,388	7,501	74,693	53,573
7,931	149,625	6,793	156,721	6,285	125,692
110,617	328,798	115,105	329,776	125,332	365,989
—	1,754,615	—	14,186,819	—	3,578,114
—	587,839	—	535,615	—	1,198,722
—	3,495	—	6,369	—	16,820
—	376,610	—	686,725	—	914,547
—	16,708	—	28,021	—	27,065
—	89,044	—	104,743	—	137,265
—	343,580	—	619,969	—	703,235
—	216,261	—	189,871	—	171,373
209,636	1,781,344	152,375	1,591,941	213,659	2,585,348

NET IMPORTS FRO

DESCRIPTION OF GOODS.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		NET IMPORTS.		NET IMPORTS.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Wines, Beer, Spirits, etc.:—					
Beer and Porter	*Value*	—	724,177	—	804,173
Spirits	,,	—	994,648	—	856,264
Wines	,,	—	1,212,226	—	1,219,074
Other Beverages (Cider, Lime Juice, etc.)	,,	—	53,619	—	64,186
Wood Pulp	*Piculs*	36,626	110,984	27,589	87,979
Woods of all kinds (not including Sandalwood, Timber, and Dye-woods)	*Value*	—	813,402	—	881,042
Woodware (excluding Furniture and Machinery)	,,	—	122,478	—	115,896
Postal Parcels not otherwise classified	,,	—	2,413,961	—	1,858,854
Sundries, Unenumerated	,,	—	9,984,919	—	8,440,963
			305,999,054		302,833,280
Less Excess of Re-exports over Imports	*Hk. Tls.*	....	28,279	....	1,981
Total: Sundries	,,	....	305,970,775	....	302,831,299
GRAND TOTAL	,,	....	570,162,557[1]	....	557,109,048

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[1] Not including imports from Foreign Countries by Junk, value *Hk. Tls.* 115,730.
[2] Not including Spirits of Wine.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Net Imports.		Net Imports.		Net Imports.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	730,380	—	815,353	—	933,080
—	630,732	—	917,912	—	684,393
—	1,027,952	—	1,245,076	—	1,162,769
—	74,286	—	113,770	—	81,690
36,360	147,491	64,902	347,834	67,304	445,498
—	1,400,446	—	1,239,259	—	1,059,398
—	240,890	—	423,100	—	288,749
—	1,418,554	—	2,113,163	—	2,916,061
—	3,828,858	—	3,477,967	—	4,188,268
	260,703,757		338,302,438		349,147,010
....	4,653,674	....	1,779,124	....	324,124
....	256,050,083	....	336,523,314	....	348,822,886
....	454,475,719[3]	....	516,406,995[4]	....	549,518,774[5]

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[3] Not including imports from Foreign Countries by Junk, not otherwise classified, *Hk. Tls.* 139,549.
[4] ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, *Hk. Tls.* 222,322.
[5] ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, *Hk. Tls.* 374,072.

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Alum, White	*Piculs*	19,836	42,592	29,970	60,762
Animals, Living:—					
Cattle	*No.*	86,565	3,078,497	59,406	2,095,288
Goats	,,	10,195	23,201	10,593	24,653
Horses	,,	1,882	89,382	1,866	94,843
Pigs	,,	277,848	2,720,544	264,359	2,306,472
Poultry	,,	2,779,543	632,770	2,952,484	603,886
Sheep	,,	44,073	182,618	36,001	145,768
Other kinds, including Asses and Mules	,,	162	4,291[1]	329	4,922
Aniseed, Star	*Piculs*	11,019	236,921	8,581	171,767
Arms and Munitions	*Value*	—	—	—	101
Arsenic	*Piculs*	—	—	1,367	11,758
Bags of all kinds	*Pieces*	9,810,615	401,083	11,349,147	503,291
Bamboo and Bambooware	*Value*	—	1,139,247	—	743,003
Bamboo Shoots	,,	—	—	11,192	73,138
Bananas	,,	—	—	14,612	10,774
Beancake	*Piculs*	11,818,443	24,962,787	10,627,853	21,734,135
Beancurd	,,	36,349	198,764	31,824	177,813
Beans (various)	,,	10,325,964	23,296,876	11,157,147	25,165,851
,, Black	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Green	,,	—	—	—	—
,, White	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Yellow	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Beer	*Value*	—	—	—	26,950
Betelnuts	*Piculs*	—	—	18,396	117,265
Bones	,,	557,167	596,132	604,287	754,110
Books, Printed	,,	6,158	309,763	6,400	344,964
Bran	,,	1,027,396	1,163,187	427,812	453,498
Brass-foil	,,	—	—	79	4,374
Brassware	,,	—	—	3,092	145,393
Bricks and Tiles	*Pieces*	60,669,558	424,159	73,407,666	496,207
Bristles	*Piculs*	57,715	4,435,336	49,445	4,347,582
Buttons, Brass	,,	—	—	116	7,533
Camphor	,,	1,857	129,352	1,810	131,574
Candles	,,	—	—	2,700	44,885
Canes, Bamboo, etc.	*Pieces*	—	—	21,143,604	215,965
Cardamoms	*Piculs*	—	—	60	5,185
Carpets	*Pieces*	—	—	9,923	103,776
Carriages and Jinrickshas	*Value*	—	—	—	2,749
Cassia Lignea	*Piculs*	100,768	1,325,477	75,858	781,388
Cement	,,	—	—	471,882	377,634

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[1] Including asses and mules.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
43,846	77,583	185,446	607,618	44,574	131,578
57,170	1,869,252	56,348	1,641,942	40,485	1,122,680
5,201	16,062	7,355	24,249	5,690	18,180
1,713	68,816	441	17,905	941	30,626
302,420	2,517,911	323,721	2,365,998	271,089	2,331,627
3,419,215	792,485	4,083,485	833,764	3,150,532	723,148
26,744	140,673	29,573	157,589	29,173	156,889
1,382	77,450	2,881	219,701	193	6,432
15,093	317,977	10,473	232,864	22,288	429,427
—	1,040	—	38	—	300
818	7,891	974	11,014	849	9,335
8,630,210	390,127	6,126,530	441,560	7,342,492	551,360
—	839,643	—	803,218	—	819,583
12,109	87,710	9,916	63,200	6,611	39,761
16,793	19,295	27,187	32,964	63,757	73,583
11,593,832	20,706,181	11,636,245	26,122,751	15,512,739	23,758,075
35,911	209,939	36,278	253,715	33,380	274,024
—	—	—	—	—	—
156,782	376,671	66,276	158,183	62,552	145,234
262,107	692,482	299,720	736,939	106,344	258,707
106,491	252,670	117,833	314,422	139,888	472,020
10,235,797	16,732,209	6,732,209	13,786,993	7,027,582	15,274,479
978,557	2,030,975	1,576,451	2,584,488	1,771,490	3,452,109
—	20,468	—	6,017	—	60,153
17,906	125,306	23,677	171,808	10,522	90,319
440,577	546,564	506,095	632,848	622,819	772,815
7,138	404,772	6,967	407,601	5,430	319,355
755,964	1,004,711	330,128	342,208	518,673	430,653
62	3,725	175	12,541	249	18,359
3,766	186,763	3,929	221,464	3,602	211,468
44,407,650	323,745	39,998,489	291,601	60,068,864	454,763
58,611	4,875,135	62,787	5,534,684	64,181	6,171,638
107	7,448	143	11,218	165	13,343
1,318	98,075	2,377	181,673	3,547	261,918
1,084	18,214	14,827	394,967	61,997	1,558,497
18,790,391	166,049	3,932,782	30,144	3,020,411	40,625
55	3,894	115	6,500	126	3,695
14,782	164,835	22,897	774,876	30,901	789,698
—	1,036	—	1,502	—	6,795
92,400	738,910	78,006	585,334	52,673	407,623
518,278	457,070	239,328	185,733	394,684	301,553

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS T

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Cereals :—					
Barley	*Piculs*	265,761	418,105	188,737	268,65
Maize	,,	55,611	97,106	520,243	864,30
Millet & Kaoliang (Sorghum)	,,	—	—	840,487	1,887,76
Oats	,,	68,304	126,705	77,666	150,30
Rice and Paddy . .	,,	—	—	27,939	83,09
Wheat	,,	1,848,071	4,761,505	1,969,048	3,850,17
Other kinds . . .	,,	1,799,168	4,110,526	64,354	269,80
Charcoal	,,	—	—	144,240	202,78
Chestnuts	,,	—	—	8,608	29,78
China-root	,,	20,985	152,696	18,075	144,71
Chinaware, Earthenware, and Pottery	,,	492,906	2,132,269	—	—
Chinaware (not Pottery and Earthenware . . .	,,	—	—	122,890	1,075,9
Cigarettes	,,	7,447	364,681	5,957	241,61
Cigars	*Pieces*	—	—	1,407,945	3,5
Clothing, Chinese, and Boots and Shoes	*Value*	—	822,177	155,880	699,7
Clothing, Boots and Shoe Leather	*Pairs*	—	—	—	—
Clothing, Caps, various .	*Pieces*	—	—	—	—
Coal	*Tons*	1,489,182	6,592,078	1,937,237	8,624,8
Coke	,,	—	—	9,336	85,8
Cordage	*Piculs*	—	—	31,324	216,0
Cosmetics	*Value*	—	—	—	75,2
Cotton Goods :—					
Shirtings, grey . .	*Pieces*	—	—	32	1
Sheetings	,,	—	—	90	3
Drills	,,	—	—	179	8
Nankeens . . .	*Piculs*	—	—	36,523	1,814,0
Cloth, Native, Fancy .	*Pieces*	—	—	68,821	149,8
Cotton Yarn . . .	*Piculs*	—	—	3,855	46,9
Cotton Gins, and Parts of Value . . .	*Value*	—	—	—	6
Cotton, Raw	*Piculs*	738,812	16,235,604	659,704	12,339,5
,, Waste	,,	56,103	351,027	41,218	289,3
Curiosities	*Value*	—	910,363	—	584,4
Dates	*Piculs*	—	—	46,270	248,6
Dye-stuff	,,	—	—	18,373	45,8
Egg Albumen and Yolk .	,,	155,973	2,943,956	125,202	2,555,6
Eggs, Fresh and Preserved .	*Pieces*	363,202,144	2,788,061	395,489,528	2,846,3
,, Frozen . . .	*Piculs*	—	—	162,379	1,346,2

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
68,856	95,780	16,050	26,623	21,894	30,009
580,991	994,756	31,965	47,444	40,722	70,695
1,108,520	2,101,519	336,364	555,120	864,914	1,730,777
77,802	151,291	16,707	26,580	54,893	60,385
22,263	73,554	22,515	80,143	37,912	130,266
1,514,536	4,061,588	1,155,179	2,223,133	1,557,601	3,276,805
109,737	200,442	35,363	89,349	226,620	455,732
135,751	184,871	145,140	193,006	170,855	212,951
15,269	61,193	9,199	39,986	8,188	35,601
30,532	208,410	17,771	144,865	19,837	170,541
—	—	—	—	—	—
142,619	1,706,289	130,314	1,787,399	112,872	1,513,413
4,478	189,627	7,461	489,128	12,577	852,597
1,956	4,162	1,994	5,423	1,394	9,932
—	855,887	—	1,503,623	—	1,138,470
82,034	91,654	38,338	76,401	54,477	310,665
161,833	40,569	214,842	51,608	186,174	34,601
1,315,542	6,074,666	1,314,822	5,737,691	1,575,627	6,276,559
8,546	69,784	10,907	97,468	68,057	575,810
32,337	243,832	35,766	276,935	42,098	253,815
—	75,697	—	60,137	—	46,702
260	1,040	100	450	21,504	99,686
2,494	10,022	29,201	146,441	38,806	193,292
3,422	13,976	18,040	83,517	38,001	181,217
45,742	2,270,460	50,015	2,888,454	48,887	2,912,371
298,148	660,545	247,796	538,666	499,553	1,079,380
20,158	203,993	13,289	181,016	27,615	450,204
—	126	—	68	—	—
725,055	13,700,496	851,037	17,091,073	832,463	20,035,862
55,906	340,784	83,062	536,007	82,970	660,242
—	290,448	—	696,024	—	542,007
56,791	304,766	47,203	284,145	46,513	290,707
14,047	54,904	9,030	22,755	32,038	71,279
190,967	4,864,925	288,346	7,702,403	405,019	11,999,684
344,329	2,685,419	354,011	2,970,837	247,400	1,870,297
106,173	875,942	181,123	1,658,237	35,671	448,089

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Fans of all kinds	*Pieces*	54,070,630	492,386	44,382,979	420,05
Feathers, Duck, Fowl, etc.	*Piculs*	98,619	1,484,857	73,687	1,041,36
,, Ornamental	*Value*	—	58,946	—	70,72
Fibres:—					
Abutilon	*Piculs*	1,043	5,048	199	89
Coir	,,	—	—	13,527	93,3
Hemp	,,	80,913	626,033	73,824	678,76
Jute	,,	105,404	715,306	60,487	343,07
Ramie	,,	171,126	2,488,874	129,795	1,664,46
Fire-crackers and Fireworks	,,	155,578	3,199,953	120,673	2,435,84
Firewood	,,	2,248,162	754,521	2,272,568	640,4
Fish and Fishery Products	,,	210,867	1,898,815	216,579	1,781,64
Fishery Products—					
Fish, Fresh	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Dried and Salt	,,	—	—	—	—
Cockles	,,	—	—	—	—
Cuttle Fish	,,	—	—	—	—
Prawns and Shrimps	,,	—	—	—	—
Sea Blubber	,,	—	—	—	—
Sharks' Fins	,,	—	—	—	—
Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Fishing Nets	,,	—	—	4,541	253,1
Flour, Potato	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Wheat	,,	139,206	610,112	69,932	339,8
,, Other kinds	,,	—	—	32,690	143,2
Fodder, Grass and Hay	,,	—	—	200,156	202,7
Fruits, Dried and Preserved	,,	225,258	1,553,544	69,753	564,7
,, Fresh, of all kinds	,,	548,803	1,485,977	205,666	483,4
Fungus	,,	11,146	361,138	9,718	401,4
Furniture	*Value*	—	177,641	—	112,1
Galangal	*Piculs*	14,970	22,498	14,164	21,8
Garlic	,,	—	—	289,481	648,4
Ginger, Fresh and Preserved	,,	63,523	191,783	58,457	185,2
Ginseng	,,	—	—	75,019	158,3
Glassware, Bangles, etc.	,,	13,144	371,860	15,910	410,8
Glue, Cow	,,	—	—	2,525	46,2
Gold and Silver Ware	*Catties*	10,035	236,188	6,494	145,6
Grasscloth	*Piculs*	15,550	1,566,305	15,803	1,422,7
Ground-nuts	,,	1,145,089	5,038,217	518,691	1,896,9
Ground-nut Cake	,,	—	—	—	—
Ground-nuts in shell	,,	—	—	—	—
,, kernels	,,	—	—	—	—
Gypsum	,,	83,499	46,878	93,050	50,0

Including ground-nut cake.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
55,068	593,282	54,647	540,364	39,763	437,150
51,532	599,550	50,686	772,529	53,125	803,508
—	53,225	—	17,288	—	10,289
—	—	—	—	—	—
11,378	82,219	7,166	59,867	12,188	109,809
74,990	850,822	143,799	1,699,371	148,691	1,645,286
103,838	482,326	101,390	493,970	85,045	451,935
161,700	2,297,118	210,931	2,821,208	276,931	3,582,409
95,428	2,353,932	122,469	3,510,961	89,994	2,719,058
1,970,969	636,962	2,626,590	1,064,767	2,765,839	977,613
—	—	—	—	—	—
126,257	482,755	70,954	385,076	80,185	496,061
70,743	567,039	73,267	530,271	59,968	388,461
595	996	3,034	3,211	3,628	3,923
13,916	331,944	19,834	451,552	23,847	427,789
3,078	56,319	2,194	52,541	2,139	58,884
8,083	19,377	7,554	27,932	7,234	30,457
128	6,921	263	20,388	205	16,003
12,586	293,861	14,416	308,185	76,136	354,889
4,389	240,858	4,659	211,087	3,933	218,344
13 964	54,544	15,594	61,462	14,701	59,133
196,596	697,032	289,747	1,141,707	798,031	2,292,382
19,629	94,871	35,758	147,835	17,326	84,625
232,235	287,181	240,249	274,529	220,938	314,937
63,905	630,682	518,328	645,340	59,831	578,841
235,606	514,194	224,131	470,652	204,213	438,268
10,705	527,596	9,900	428,619	9,555	391,749
—	102,083	—	188,177	—	179,792
9,757	17,997	14,734	26,758	16,309	34,424
262,208	749,720	239,857	1,141,277	221,627	911,266
59,785	170,505	64,065	201,306	43,673	131,337
107,775	310,346	85,213	219,370	145,617	295,275
18,386	458,584	13,304	407,027	12,277	305,625
1,460	27,971	4,429	83,691	3,620	50,169
7,362	169 805	9,126	212,724	16,934	383,126
13,712	1,318,661	15,680	1,710,336	15,783	1,940,452
—	—	—	—	—	—
28,874	105,945	38,430	77,558	55,960	96,306
332,191	1,119,832	216,846	803,477	102,665	355,648
216,086	1,006,382	424,917	1,812,251	368,653	1,656,220
112,310	49,809	169,163	76,292	135,751	62,579

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Hair, Horse	*Piculs*	—	—	—	—
,, Other animals	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Animal	*Value*	20,649	535,895	20,319	578,316
,, Human	,,	27,509	1,058,357	14,446	381,368
Hams	*Piculs*	—	—	10,225	203,333
Hats, Rush	*Pieces*	6,305,180	84,107	2,115,811	33,498
,, Wood-shaving or Chip	,,	1,180,547	45,649	1,698,287	61,444
Honey	*Piculs*	—	—	1,296	12,469
Horns, Cow and Buffalo	,,	8,646	66,479	7,739	58,351
,, Deer, Young	*Pairs*	2,162	156,523	656	48,624
Indigo, Liquid	*Piculs*	—	—	13,830	84,721
Ink, Chinese	,,	637	46,594	387	33,876
Intestines	*Value*	—	—	—	421,617
Joss Sticks	,,	58,735	369,129	54,787	345,364
Lace	,,	—	—	—	139,842
Lard (Pork Fat)	*Piculs*	—	—	73,684	942,246
Launches and Boats	*Value*	—	—	—	11,449
Lead, White	*Piculs*	—	—	584	5,312
,, Yellow	,,	—	—	462	3,908
Leather	,,	18,514	593,280	18,380	598,509
Leatherware	,,	—	—	3,108	166,126
Lichees, Dried	,,	—	—	28,730	736,652
Lily Flowers, Dried	,,	34,880	379,160	36,543	340,751
Liquorice	,,	27,164	336,444	24,832	237,079
Lunangans, Dried	,,	—	—	4,663	41,937
Machinery	*Value*	—	—	—	9,254
Mats (not including Matting)	*Pieces*	21,839,088	1,786,871	25,891,743	1,837,234
Matting	*Rolls*	266,231	2,051,799	194,147	1,489,585
Meats, Fresh or Frozen	*Piculs*	183,236	1,792,444	117,740	1,233,552
,, Prepared or Preserved (including Lard, Preserved Game, etc.)	,,	109,523	1,949,959	15,306[1]	500,601
,, Prepared or Preserved (including Preserved Game and Poultry, but not Hams or Lard)	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Poultry, Game (Fresh or Frozen)	,,	24,488	247,518	42,934	410,000
Medicines	*Value*	—	3,789,058	—	2,672,341
Minerals:—					
Antimony, Regulus, Crude and Refined	*Piculs*	215,406	942,519	324,727	1,387,411
Antimony, Regulus	,,	—	—	—	—

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[1] Not including Hams or Lard.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
7,697	246,860	18,514	656,620	9,545	344,786
6,082	68,773	10,265	135,237	6,496	89,088
—	—	—	—	—	—
14,394	338,483	16,672	394,049	22,244	502,762
10,490	263,943	9,458	254,018	20,193	567,461
2,238,341	49,829	2,853,349	112,644	2,095,241	71,014
871,620	30,736	681,706	26,473	341,964	13,636
1,348	12,914	2,519	30,020	2,781	42,163
4,190	34,056	4,777	39,614	7,885	52,133
1,297	96,228	1,145	87,352	971	70,129
53,660	450,021	90,059	765,613	78,148	655,646
626	51,951	768	67,327	871	72,934
—	301,771	—	405,988	—	457,087
64,775	423,863	45,864	324,740	51,254	369,415
—	274,801	—	438,300	—	618,441
85,395	1,138,964	96,035	1,265,430	158,141	2,482,099
—	12,556	—	5,189	—	13,078
476	4,486	295	6,402	204	4,679
571	5,283	414	5,921	1,611	27,359
19,062	775,320	23,101	1,247,933	46,497	3,060,050
3,288	169,804	3,541	226,452	2,884	200,474
13,820	431,869	30,168	928,798	35,274	1,009,131
35,847	445,615	35,247	453,177	29,230	310,946
32,677	334,911	32 664	315,142	76,963	709,523
6,362	64,721	7,070	85,189	8,914	125,980
—	18,297	—	189,391	—	196,298
27,137,891	1,941,481	25,761,508	1,834,067	32,606,770	1,908,445
115,003	834,897	187,692	1,313,230	72,124	550,383
214,852	1,948,918	305,714	2,580,608	395,521	2,984,084
—	—	—	—	—	—
19,912	581,444	40,988	844,656	72,754	1,168,364
51,612	460,568	35,950	331,712	54,619	574,885
—	3,176,244	—	3,201,109	—	3,330,009
—	—	—	—	—	—
358,966	4,666,832	173,137	6,912,144	245,068	3,714,321

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Minerals :—					
Antimony, Crude	*Piculs*	—	—	—	—
,, Ore	,,	71,924	14,9991	82,192	155,816
Copper, ingots, and slabs	,,	—	—	1,829	28,136
Iron, Pig and Manufactured	,,	1,190,989	1,430,528	1,033,516	1,539,352
,, Bars, Billets and Nail-rod	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Pans	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Plates and Sheets	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Rails	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Manufactures, Unclassed	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Pig and Unmanufactured	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Ore	,,	4,530,160	609,744	4,950,977	666,082
Lead	,,	693	2,744	3,881	17,571
Lead Ore	,,	67,220	130,928	61,524	210,493
Quicksilver	,,	35	3,599	986	104,282
Tin, in Slabs	,,	138,688	10,916,906	119,225	7,978,558
,, Compound	,,	—	—	—	—
Zinc	,,	15,017	96,761	5,123	32,013
,, Ore		157,860	110,503	121,884	85,400
Metals and Minerals Unclassed	,,	47,025	367,754	32,361	334,130
Ores, Unclassed	,,	139,518	52,980	146 212	126,774
Moss	,,	—	—	1,184	33,632
Mushrooms	,,	—	—	1,448	97,934
Musk	*Catties*	1,349	511,497	17,498[1]	373,597
Nankeens	*Piculs*	48,056	2,358,551	—	—
Nutgalls	,,	55,645	1,070,409	58,732	1,167,073
Oils, Bean		491,817	3,732,012	595,027	4,860,894
,, Cotton Seed	,,	—	—	127,185	931,093
,, Ground-nut	,,	256,573	2,832,998	228,228	2,414,900
,, Rape Seed	,,	—	—	2,942	26,577
,, Sesamum Seed	,,	—	—	11,179	132,982
,, Tea	,,	—	—	20,062	210,312
,, Wood	,,	—	—	438,867	3,736,275
,, Vegetable, other kinds	,,	568,268	4,849,182	19,191	77,090
Oils, Essential (Aniseed, Cassia-leaf, etc.)	,,	7,530	1,194,903	5,272	791,284
Olives, Fresh and Salted	,,	—	—	25,033	93,088
Oranges, Fresh	,,	—	—	173,065	463,474

[1] Taels.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
32,274	32,385	197,965	4,911,359	333,026	2,346,841
27,638	133,912	194,525	1,383,243	63,813	237,702
45,084	812,389	564,818	9,066,681	689,823	9,946,756
—	—	—	—	—	—
3,496	13,828	8,432	28,782	8,066	36,715
30,677	165,481	28,494	158,425	21,103	115,568
1	10	7,273	24,707	13,697	45,800
—	—	2,033	5,717	15,909	47,522
26,606	152,658	140,736	551,013	229,709	797,807
1,596,180	2,482,469	2,392,122	5,174,974	2,432,904	5,288,786
5,108,688	698,128	4,679,734	915,104	5,113,182	1,018,479
11,353	65,554	18,655	253,340	12,378	164,411
949	2,728	148,486	511,476	230,700	774,659
3,484	628,209	2,939	589,229	4,320	764,672
132,379	9,246,812	126,044	8,630,164	196,327	12,204,877
138	4,425	310	7,002	1,681	27,767
38,490	441,137	12,804	244,879	7,143	114,665
141,229	127,498	6,790	16,929	3,771	7,126
148,090	1,740,733	375,184	5,756,968	422,959	4,189,919
66,501	28,751	123,424	105,639	275,031	1,152,744
1,190	41,304	1,119	37,936	1,171	48,330
2,681	156,483	1,735	114,764	3,509	214,361
19,775	430,334	18,893	515,941	15,954	533,914
—	—	—	—	—	—
50,398	916,076	47,068	1,032,502	41,506	896,606
1,017,922	7,481,165	1,565,640	11,833,167	1,891,353	18,196,125
129,528	894,029	110,909	845,978	78,051	616,315
352,098	3,431,960	561,512	6,000,494	463,553	5,189,839
41,350	325,458	32,584	270,510	16,388	119,536
22,008	195,602	32,651	322,593	8,904	119,086
9,403	81,489	5,080	50,029	15,706	174,035
310,344	3,012,343	515,173	5,511,418	401,361	4,835,908
36,791	201,498	74,252	543,514	57,513	470,888
7,877	959,507	9,431	878,840	10,009	847,040
26,991	128,163	27,411	140,869	26,404	138,274
173,788	433,219	176,264	433,148	142,568	354,359

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quanrity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Opium	*Piculs*	—	—	198	250,255
Paper	,,	249,475	3,181,543	229,959	2,864,983
,, 1st Quality	,,	—	—	—	—
,, 2nd ,,	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Joss	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Mill	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Pearls, Real	*Value*	—	7,725	—	1,406
Pears	*Piculs*	—	—	39,878	117,545
Peas	,,	—	—	276,881	745,566
Peel, Orange and Pumelo	,,	4,517	59,327	4,267	53,519
Pens, Chinese	*Pieces*	—	—	4,745,763	90,695
Persimmons, Dried	*Piculs*	—	—	23,659	117,963
Pipes (Tobacco)	*Pieces*	—	—	23,326	17,417
Plants and Shrubs	*Value*	—	—	—	12,316
Potash	*Piculs*	—	—	7,205	37,803
Potatoes	,,	155,836	146,579	122,408	134,961
Pottery and Earthenware (not Chinaware)	,,	—	—	326,001	862,445
Rattans, Whole, Split, and Peeled	,,	19,848	138,019	17,045	113,573
Realgar	,,	—	—	541	1,088
Resin	,,	—	—	11,780	40,322
Rhubarb	,,	16,841	218,818	10,938	180,778
Salt	,,	—	—	1,727,267	838,896
Samshu	,,	141,296	877,615	91,823	500,156
,, Medicated	,,	—	—	61,428	616,928
Seed, Apricot	,,	46,020	971,861	19,737	394,755
,, Cotton	,,	182,494	222,350	245,839	294,576
,, Lily Flower	,,	—	—	5,259	80,965
,, Linseed	,,	—	—	142,943	403,300
,, Melon	,,	53,249	486,768	34,243	356,935
,, Rape (Vegetable, etc.)	,,	616,773	1,942,480	850,397	2,662,349
,, Sesamum	,,	2,034,647	12,372,194	1,251,180	6,355,317
,, Other kinds	,,	755,586	1,873,589	373,832	921,093
Seed-cake	,,	1,312,949	1,410,849	1,340,437	1,418,585
,, Rape	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Sesamum	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Other kinds	,,	—	—	—	—
Silk, Raw, White, not Re-reeled, not Steam Filature	,,	11,617	4,879,365	6,491	2,811,367
,, ,, ,, Re-reeled	,,	20,553	10,547,082	9,583	5,552,127

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
57,879	1,228,889	55,739	1,044,411	54,517	1,029,043
96,589	882,237	123,085	1,041,669	84,695	715,234
86,163	2,078,303	70,773	1,306,468	65,378	1,217,517
177	1,588	3,454	31,093	682	6,162
12,205	70,035	13,730	101,757	37,619	235,126
—	18	—	6,750	—	—
46,673	119,160	38,784	81,654	27,140	63,502
403,469	1,032,626	426,493	1,005,158	425,055	1,048,385
3,311	48,242	3,745	63,562	3,568	69,317
5,378,341	229,614	4,764,436	190,585	4,273,244	189,759
30,774	150,196	27,503	140,747	29,332	155,716
27,591	21,988	19,647	16,816	13,543	11,011
—	41,912	—	51,260	—	52,055
8,419	58,010	7,933	54,699	14,979	98,224
168,890	153,978	150,387	141,069	108,995	93,448
327,357	830,152	304,471	1,092,081	257,488	942,351
32,261	279,449	33,082	289,954	20,151	173,421
135	300	7,124	63,669	4,282	40,218
27,065	104,546	50,633	179,551	24,745	99,890
13,665	222,989	8,017	131,281	9,029	125,005
1,540,351	1,072,863	2,196,074	1,206,268	2,783,985	1,026,318
88,618	490,344	87,327	485,877	87,645	487,339
62,543	635,923	61,805	639,978	60,259	631,235
56,383	879,992	33,407	550,909	18,295	279,340
566,111	661,414	373,046	414,858	370,380	459,282
11,620	140,803	10,256	128,511	7,703	120,589
152,973	438,915	202,499	622,253	139,888	428,458
63,723	492,935	69,810	559,955	42,428	363,122
1,091,630	3,182,087	623,984	2,007,595	430,694	1,590,833
2,298,208	9,555,965	1,558,100	6,997,751	223,200	1,100,536
330,091	897,279	347,552	1,021,163	491,702	1,404,422
—	—	—	—	—	—
469,117	491,739	285,454	320,697	500,521	602,933
270	259	8,343	11,290	1,544	1,910
733,328	960,547	517,747	813,034	560,871	910,701
6,780	2,774,112	5,947	2,760,703	4,612	2,190,748
24,950	13,371,592	13,650	9,062,008	14,076	9,660,543

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Silk, Raw, White, Steam Filature . .	*Piculs*	68,342	45,602,397	54,016	37,384,485
,, ,, Yellow, not Re-reeled, not Steam Filature . .	,,	17,633	4,866,266	14,659	4,439,073
,, ,, ,, Re-reeled .	,,	—	—	18	7,374
,, ,, ,, Steam Filature . .	,,	1,199	466,123	2,750	1,267,413
,, ,, Wild, not Steam Filature .	,,	29,053	6,983,583	20,969	4,072,777
,, ,, ,, Steam Filature . .	,,	609	184,859	103	26,327
,, Cocoons . . .	,,	25,469	2,328,098	23,679	2,078,721
,, Waste. . . .	,,	116,860	6,672,728	81,304	5,025,679
,, Cocoons, Refuse . .	,,	26,049	645,781	12,621	253,903
,, Embroidery . .	,,	—	—	276	377,785
,, Piece Goods . .	,,	17,751	14,235,709	13,571	10,841,472
,, Shantung Pongees .	,,	16,749	6,638,069	13,150	4,720,914
,, Ribbons . . .	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Thread . . .	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Products, Unclassed .	*Value*	—	844,754	—	702,250
Skins and Hides, Undressed :					
Cow and Buffalo . .	*Piculs*	498,038	15,184,344	417,123	13,499,340
Goat	*Pieces*	7,153,693	4,067,708	5,602,423	3,207,974
Horse, Ass, and Mule .	*Piculs*	11,384	245,821	11,566	235,220
Sheep	*Pieces*	552,425	234,829	369,542	127,251
Unclassed . . .	*Value*	55,451	56,552	22,079	11,294
Skins, Dressed :—					
Goats' (Tanned) . .	*Pieces*	639,992	431,320	260,871	200,182
Kid	,,	112,347	25,517	25,977	8,683
Lamb	,,	587,151	670,326	320,853	354,438
Unclassed . . .	*Value*	447	486	8,743	4,581
Skins, Dressed, made up :—					
Dog, Clothing, Mats, and Rugs	*Pieces*	591,118	430,715	393,972	316,844
Goat, Clothing . .	,,	721	1,217	—	—
,, Mats and Rugs .	,,	328,577	358,554	451,056	560,227
Kid, Clothing . .	,,	93,483	138,330	102,564	132,939
Lamb, Clothing . .	,,	68,393	211,709	50,873	86,056
Sheep, Clothing, Mats, and Rugs . . .	,,	41,618	46,696	88,106	118,937
Unclassed . . .	*Value*	36,953	65,241	38,008	37,116

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
59,762	40,189,097	65,813	53,770,546	69,003	53,301,251
13,145	3,936,142	13,867	4,563,117	14,492	4,532,552
1,079	526,056	1,811	1,078,427	1,301	714,629
3,377	1,842,561	2,473	1,742,262	4,100	2,735,911
9,779	1,467,042	5,517	1,042,761	3,926	921,877
24,225	4,962,722	13,165	4,242,335	14,310	5,091,092
34,177	2,583,103	30,333	2,602,140	33,623	1,857,501
118,049	5,749,437	139,614	8,198,225	114,828	6,505,409
41,961	995,612	42,963	979,628	27,807	675,039
160	204,501	128	155,258	166	194,300
16,382	12,850,970	14,855	12,206,588	12,981	10,904,546
24,776	8,707,103	24,266	7,813,378	17,228	6,325,220
5	4,215	10	7,879	11	8,319
479	263,972	397	231,216	247	135,691
—	362,482	—	560,969	—	419,369
437,395	16,817,691	465,461	17,581,462	477,099	17,367,572
7,306,984	4,017,999	9,888,271	5,466,044	11,735,579	7,898,186
13,883	302,133	25,957	541,254	30,757	703,832
662,499	277,762	1,198,253	495,962	1,721,823	966,586
—	15,387	—	28,852	—	72,112
935,027	751,308	494,771	485,729	425,291	431,547
8,096	1,936	17,699	7,287	20,457	4,541
233,704	266,706	238,395	269,043	173,941	193,027
—	—	9,651	3,066	2,227	834
717,339	593,506	805,855	690,940	389,275	355,281
1	11	1,815	3,660	536	1,062
368,136	455,988	161,227	209,315	70,818	90,848
146,206	176,723	114,949	146,525	46,018	55,371
52,958	136,111	53,252	235,683	48,067	129,254
76,549	94,453	27,029	42,954	31,887	42,763
52,337	82,347	72,041	111,313	16,864	17,392

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS TO

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Skins (Furs), Dressed and Undressed:—					
Fox	*Pieces*	107,069	517,137	55,450	283,423
Marmot	,,	279,264	68,122	167,097	46,182
Raccoon	,,	226,787	124,095	137,309	86,692
Sable	,,	737	15,099	1,827	4,482
Weasel	,,	1,033,582	221,349	601,572	118,641
Tails of all kinds	*Value*	—	10,847	—	31,157
Unclassed	,,	2,132,703	652,379	867,859	356,621
Soap	,,	—	—	—	8,344
Soapstoneware	*Piculs*	—	—	5,894	93,116
Soda	,,	—	—	2,605	4,251
Soy	,,	—	—	8,050	20,741
Stones—					
(Marble, Granite)	*Value*	—	—	—	116,311
Straw Braid	*Piculs*	101,037	5,074,043	16,648	1,104,310
Sugar, Brown	,,	108,512	444,656	138,938	565,507
,, White	,,	551	2,950	3,697	21,719
,, Candy	,,	96	883	166	1,652
,, Cane	,,	168,386	181,763	134,623	141,038
Tallow, Animal (Beef)	,,	122,781	1,275,687	116,029	1,100,986
,, Vegetable	,,	220,998	2,266,961	190,058	2,074,284
Tea, Black	,,	547,708	14,387,869	613,295	16,203,547
,, Green	,,	277,343	10,889,666	266,738	10,785,584
,, Brick, Black	,,	430,819	6,773,010	346,781	6,711,019
,, ,, Green	,,	175,201	1,674,092	237,102	2,323,259
,, Tablet	,,	9,843	203,065	12,145	235,100
,, Dust	,,	1,195	9,067	12,412	104,343
,, Leaf (unfired)	,,	—	—	7,325	94,210
Thread and Yarn, Ramie	,,	—	—	10,424	306,626
Timber and Wood of all kinds	*Value*	—	2,555,230	—	—
Timber—					
Hardwood	*Cub. ft.*	—	—	761,403	136,515
Softwood	*Sq. ft.*	—	—	21,035,529	603,316
Poles	*Pieces*	—	—	942,452	1,080,542
Tinfoil	*Piculs*	—	—	2,485	187,845
Tobacco, Leaf and Prepared	,,	152,014	2,555,874	161,347	2,418,145
,, Leaf and Stalk	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Prepared	,,	—	—	—	—
Toys	*Value*	—	—	—	22,871
Turmeric	*Piculs*	—	—	251	818
Turnips, Dried and Salted	,,	—	—	101,454	225,466
Umbrellas, Paper, Kittysols	*Pieces*	—	—	2,828,400	369,362
Varnish	*Piculs*	13,432	841,307	13,429	794,122

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
22,765	126,771	56,167	268,344	13,093	80,579
99,566	18,969	693,313	125,232	272,628	63,620
20,258	13,205	61,582	42,945	79,688	50,862
221	3,546	542	7,425	—	—
143,961	29,895	486,871	91,948	627,748	128,404
—	55,821	—	83,628	—	32,557
1,281,257	381,459	1,525,178	472,406	1,894,467	571,701
—	20,775	—	49,476	—	45,030
3,308	52,791	2,793	44,108	964	15,508
2,505	3,934	10,501	18,360	9,572	49,931
9,789	34,456	7,655	42,952	6,349	37,953
—	139,273	—	125,216	—	288,718
45,126	2,863,387	57,080	3,143,275	40,524	2,406,683
215,926	970,190	163,700	814,038	184,475	913,667
30,519	236,402	27,700	214,622	45,707	320,790
678	7,543	263	2,911	1,350	13,674
136,087	171,034	151,702	185,766	229,836	289,093
113,636	1,162,244	306,003	5,055,071	277,208	3,927,989
181,482	1,962,179	256,960	3,011,695	151,385	1,782,938
771,141	27,596,791	648,228	18,970,992	472,272	12,395,822
306,324	15,250,729	298,728	14,231,307	196,093	8,966,112
390,074	8,883,090	396,369	7,976,736	223,327	4,962,326
251,244	2,786,774	163,816	1,742,479	220,309	2,545,768
30,712	768,551	26,669	565,135	7,917	193,027
31,295	252,560	7,594	54,905	5,472	42,232
1,563	24,024	1,229	18,863	145	2,400
11,111	327,942	8,324	259,543	7,941	242,305
—	—	—	—	—	—
367,623	138,570	259,683	113,433	349,414	163,799
16,276,905	683,775	19,344,454	783,868	27,192,691	999,782
809,400	972,497	797,944	758,638	1,026,634	940,774
2,209	139,595	2,116	256,650	1,996	223,147
—	—	—	—	—	—
157,613	1,497,023	128,305	1,136,516	148,653	1,468,440
65,558	1,636,428	74,044	1,908,255	74,973	2,063,698
—	23,146	—	33,498	—	27,254
5,838	18,797	26,669	110,365	5,250	19,581
97,830	236,238	81,716	226,544	83,464	223,127
3,044,720	489,167	3,518,131	678,330	3,530,808	657,957
13,568	725,364	15,619	788,658	12,609	650,738

NATIVE GOODS: EXPORTS T

Description of Goods.	Classifier of Quantity.	1913.		1914.	
		Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
			Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*
Vegetables, Dried and Fresh	*Piculs*	1,176,108	2,502,262	719,182	1,204,383
Vermicelli and Macaroni .	,,	284,072	2,773,976	236,722	1,947,261
Vermilion	,,	—	—	123	10,566
Vinegar	,,	—	—	72,060	102,611
Walnuts	,,	—	—	50,590	301,603
Walnut in Shell	,,	—	—	—	—
,, Kernels . .	,,	—	—	—	—
Wax, Vegetable . . .	,,	—	—	41,622	418,920
,, White	,,	4,599	156,034	3,753	121,769
,, Yellow	,,	—	—	1,827	64,533
Woodware (not including Furniture)	*Value*	—	231,709	—	251,767
Wool, Camels'	*Piculs*	33,007	796,577	25,011	695,738
,, (Hair), Goats' . .	,,	11,684	372,325	9,787	330,108
,, Sheep's	,,	280,262	5,487,543	301,358	6,658,962
Yeast	,,	—	—	19,385	92,686
Postal Parcels not otherwise classified	*Value*	—	301,616	—	166,173
Sundries, Unenumerated .	,,	—	10,743,864	—	3,477,060
Total . . .	*Hk Tls*	....	403,305,546[1]	....	345,280,874

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[1] Not including Exports to Foreign Countries by Junk, value *Hk. Tls.* 232,405.

[2] ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, *Hk. Tls.* 283,814.

FOREIGN COUNTRIES—*continued*

1915.		1916.		1917.	
Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Hk. Tls.		*Hk. Tls.*		*Hk. Tls.*
662,286	1,220,865	679,599	1,194,069	698,524	1,559,171
287,630	2,555,634	232,731	1,898,994	204,495	1,604,457
70	7,279	70	18,667	51	13,698
73,686	98,428	79,927	105,363	61,981	76,584
—	—	—	—	—	—
49,095	274,626	80,813	384,866	31,064	150,507
3,999	51,377	11,714	146,690	8,515	109,657
123	1,369	7,725	87,419	538	6,685
5,499	206,387	8,690	320,386	4,026	197,507
1,504	50,811	5,789	197,518	4,173	152,543
—	264,059	—	432,436	—	488,021
31,034	954,554	29,783	1,070,827	33,734	1,298,002
10,264	313,263	13,030	425,177	13,641	469,430
377,715	11,128,652	334,536	10,698,661	339,354	10,533,020
22,399	109,989	21,148	102,413	26,293	128,755
—	255,784	—	10,585,948	—	1,105,750
—	3,657,465	—	4,594,073	—	5,312,123
....	418,861,164[3]	....	481,797,366[4]	....	462,931,630[5]

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[3] Not including Exports to Foreign Countries by Junk, value *Hk. Tls.* 270,019.
[4] ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, *Hk. Tls.* 305,307.
[5] ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, *Hk. Tls.* 275,058.

OPIUM: NET IMPORTATION

Port.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
Manchouli . .	—	—	—	0.08	—
Harbin . .	—	—	—	0.14	—
Antung . .	2	1	5	—	—
Dairen . .	—	—	—	—	—
Newchwang .	9	2	17	0.46	—
Chinwangtao .	—	—	—	—	—
Tientsin . .	150	153	152	43.00	—
Chefoo . .	364	246	770	138.49	198.95
Kiaochou . .	11	21	42	23.97	6.00
Chungking .	1	—	—	4.80	—
Ichang . .	—	—	—	—	1.00
Shasi . .	78	43	30	16.60	14.40
Changsha . .	276	139	196	153.80	98.40
Yochow . .	2	—	—	3.60	—
Hankow . .	238	196	135	86.40	56.00
Kiukiang . .	1,874	1,494	1,439	1,215.92	1,491.00
Wuhu . .	2,428	2,042	1,657	1,451.00	1,228.40
Nanking . .	970	375	—	20.23	—
Chinkiang . .	3,302	2,894	2,609	2,038.50	903.00
Shanghai . .	15,722	13,727	14,847	12,108.96	10,908.80
Hangchow . .	1,674	1,199	1,034	363.90	0.48
Ningpo . .	1,458	1,323	936	505.42	411.88
Wenchow . .	108	82	82	91.20	28.40
Nanning . .	—	—	—	—	1.20
Foochow . .	3,194	2,869	2,558	1,798.47	1,449.10
Amoy . .	3,870	3,258	3,809	3,376.73	2,830.72
Swatow . .	4,304	4,233	4,287	2,655.95	1,940.57
Canton . .	10,404	10,060	7,561	5,064.04	3,907.54
Kowloon . .	1,040	953	766	495.39	204.09
Lappa . .	1,406	1,282	1,019	1,525.75	818.01
Kongmoon .	—	295	1,243	942.00	570.00
Samshui . .	289	383	2,519	912.65	491.46
Wuchow . .	8	1	25	172.60	93.03
Kiungchow .	1,133	847	882	115.43	27.86
Pakhoi . .	269	279	255	121.74	77.25
TOTAL .	54,584	48,397	48,875	35,447.22	27,757.54

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* For consumption in the Leased Territory.

INTO EACH PORT, 1907 to 1917

1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
53.43	66.69	332.34	305.07	298.63	179.00*
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
478.70	330.91	—	—	—	—
7.45	10.61	10.45	9.06	117.13	45.63*
—	—	—	—	—	—
3.00	—	—	—	—	—
452.26	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
537.05	1.61	—	—	—	—
998.84	—	54.34	287.28	263.26	161.34
1,189.00	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
1,008.50	—	—	—	—	—
7,615.31	9,758.03	4,147.16	2,900.72	737.14	645.30
—	—	—	—	—	—
9.11	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—
945.98	1,034.30	110.06	—	—	—
1,628.72	508.82	53.89	—	—	—
2,062.59	2,120.57	814.77	292.70	4.38	1.99
3,101.20	2,409.39	1,475.32	545.59	138.91	40.12
144.73	158.27	65.12	25.22	—	—
328.77	176.25	58.80	10.35	—	—
800.22	989.59	285.32	19.61	—	—
332.29	433.21	80.58	12.74	—	—
3.56	—	—	—	—	—
217.23	165.04	—	—	—	—
103.14	31.12	2.19	—	1.88	—
22,021.08	18,194.41	7,490.34	4,408.34	1,561.33	1,073.38†

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† The figures in this column show the net importations from all sources during 1917. The tables on pages 146 and 147 show the net direct importations from Foreign Countries.

NET IMPORTATION OF THE

Year.	Malwa.	Patna.	Benares.	Persian.
	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
1906 . . .	14,368	25,478	13,475	796
1907 . . .	17,394	24,129	11,568	1,443
1908 . . .	15,691	20,575	10,818	1,281
1909 . . .	14,136	22,059	11,527	1,128
1910 . . .	10,657	15,851	8,311	619
1911 . . .	9,337	9,836	7,343	1,232
1912 . . .	10,157	7,216	4,565	81
1913 . . .	10,436	6,250	1,427	74.81
1914 . . .	4,487	1,964	695	334
1915 . . .	2,262.01	1,130.18	702.02	305.07
1916 . . .	658.97	237.56	247.16	325.23
1917 . . .	553.76	175.04	119.95	179.00*

N.B.—1 Picul = 133⅓ lb.; 1 Picul = 1·19 cwt.

* For consumption in the Leased Territories.

DIFFERENT KINDS OF OPIUM

TURKEY.	RUSSIAN MANCHURIA.	YUNNAN.	BOILED.	TOTAL.
Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.	Piculs.
—	—	—	—	54,117
24	6	—	9	54,584
2	18	11	12	48,397
2	18	—	5	48,875
(10 lb.)	6	—	3	35,447
0.02	1.94	—	4·90	27,757·54
—	0.41	—	0.97	22,021
—	4·50	—	0.90	18,194·41
—	4·54	—	0.03	7,487·54
—	—	—	9.06	4,408·34
—	—	27,40†	65.01	1,561·33
—	—	—	45·63*	1,073·38

8.9 Piculs = 1 ton (2240 lb.).

† Taiwan Opium.

SILK.—Distribution of Exports to Foreign Countries.—1913

DESTINATION.	Raw White.			Raw, Yellow.			Total.	Raw Wild.		Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.		Not Steam Filature.	Steam Filature.				
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom	658	362	11	33	—	—	1,064	442	1	1,106	19,966	1,030	—
Hongkong	1,732	645	45,429	49	—	—	47,855	430	—	5,254	39,646	—	—
India	2,090	251	5	10,922	—	115	13,383	19	—	—	2	—	437
Singapore, Straits, etc.	42	—	—	—	—	—	42	2	—	—	—	—	51
French Indo-China	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
United States (including Hawaii)	—	11,968	5,667	10	—	10	17,655	13,063	586	284	4,769	165	—
Philippine Islands	2	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
Austria-Hungary	—	—	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	75	1,803	161	—
Belgium	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	428	—	—
France	2,793	5,349	16,507	2,022	—	757	27,428	6,284	15	10,137	34,368	15,697	—
Germany	—	45	—	285	—	—	330	520	—	—	317	—	—
Italy	3,076	1,797	723	867	—	317	6,780	1,593	1	2,722	10,018	2,726	—
Japan	22	108	—	—	—	—	130	3,730	6	5,224	4,768	6,270	—
Korea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	661	—	—	—
Macao	261	—	—	—	—	—	261	2,697	—	6	286	—	—
Mexico & Central America	120	—	—	—	—	—	120	—	—	—	—	—	—
Russia	16	5	—	243	—	—	264	1	—	—	—	—	—
Spain (including Gibraltar)	4	—	—	15	—	—	19	—	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland	108	5	—	5	—	—	118	—	—	—	1	—	—
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	693	18	—	3,177	—	—	3,888	267	—	—	—	—	—
Total	11,617	20,553	68,342	17,633	—	1,199	119,344	29,053	609	25,469	116,372	26,049	488

SILK.—Distribution of Exports to Foreign Countries.—1914

Destination.	Raw, White. Not Re-reeled.	Raw, White. Re-reeled.	Raw, White. Steam Filature.	Raw, Yellow. Not Re-reeled.	Raw, Yellow. Re-reeled.	Raw, Yellow. Steam Filature.	Total.	Raw, Wild. Not Steam Filature.	Raw, Wild. Steam Filature.	Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom .	1,356	614	189	—	—	19	2,178	936	—	4,241	19,281	—	—
Hongkong . .	1,345	798	33,099	187	8	—	35,437	395	—	2,621	27,677	—	8
India . . .	1,638	105	—	11,623	10	962	14,338	5	—	4	9	—	268
Canada . .	—	51	30	—	—	—	81	—	—	—	—	—	—
Straits Settlements	26	—	—	—	—	—	26	—	—	—	—	—	2
French Indo-China	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	10	—	—	—	—	—
United States .	8	5,518	10,297	10	—	37	15,870	5,379	103	2,969	4,964	—	—
Philippine Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Austria-Hungary .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,042	37	—
Belgium . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	295	—	—
France . .	993	1,743	9,958	667	—	1,300	14,661	4,496	—	5,798	16,879	9,362	—
Germany . .	—	20	—	99	—	—	119	297	—	—	1,094	—	—
Italy . . .	586	665	423	305	—	300	2,280	1,696	—	1,511	5,335	2,303	—
Japan . . .	—	69	20	—	—	—	89	5,194	—	6,532	3,985	919	—
Korea . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	115	—	3	—	—	—
Macao . .	220	—	—	—	—	—	220	2,284	—	—	231	—	—
Mexico & Central America . .	36	—	—	—	—	—	36	—	—	—	—	—	—
Russia . .	—	—	—	198	—	—	198	50	—	—	—	—	—
Spain (including Gibraltar) .	—	—	—	5	—	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland .	36	—	—	—	—	—	36	—	—	—	2	—	—
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	247	—	—	1,564	—	132	1,943	112	—	—	232	—	—
Total .	6,491	9,583	54,016	14,659	18	2,750	87,517	20,969	103	23,679	81,026	12,621	278

SILK.—Distribution of Exports to Foreign Countries.—1915

DESTINATION.	Raw, White.			Raw, Yellow.			Total.	Raw, Wild.		Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.		Not Steam Filature.	Steam Filature.				
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*
United Kingdom	977	1,514	335	26	6	47	2,905	5	294	874	22,064	—	—
Hongkong	1,262	5,124	26,403	74	—	—	32,863	284	—	3,072	22,723	—	—
India	2,132	339	—	10,340	632	369	13,812	12	47	—	—	—	448
Straits Settlements	33	4	—	—	—	—	37	—	—	—	—	—	15
Canada	—	51	—	—	—	—	51	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States (including Hawaii)	—	11,514	15,178	—	2	123	26,817	363	14,298	1,584	7,026	—	—
Philippine Islands	69	—	—	—	—	—	69	—	—	—	—	—	—
France	1,706	4,866	16,651	1,190	339	2,817	27,569	1,812	5,251	6,932	30,567	29,119	—
Italy	25	—	15	—	60	4	104	73	608	3,471	32,225	12,389	—
Japan	71	1,458	1	10	—	—	1,540	4,553	3,593	18,234	3,192	453	130
Korea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	34	—	10	6	—	—
Macao	173	—	—	—	—	—	173	2,497	—	—	141	—	—
Russia	48	71	1,179	580	35	17	1,930	146	134	—	—	—	—
Dutch Indies	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	284	9	—	922	5	—	1,220	—	—	—	—	—	—
Siam	—	—	—	3	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	6,780	24,950	59,762	13,145	1,079	3,377	109,093	9,779	24,225	34,177	117,444	41,961	605

SILK.—Distribution of Exports to Foreign Countries.—1916

DESTINATION.	Raw, White.			Raw, Yellow.			Total.	Raw, Wild.		Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.		Not Steam Filature.	Steam Filature.				
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*
United Kingdom .	578	1,675	297	—	86	45	2,678	279	—	—	—	—	3
Hongkong . .	1,291	8	35,640	284	—	—	37,223	1,515	—	5,127	29,814	—	355
India . . .	1,068	241	15	10,127	447	25	11,923	7	5	—	1	—	631
Straits Settlements	30	—	—	10	—	—	40	—	—	—	—	—	—
United States (including Hawaii)	88	9,028	14,800	—	262	184	24,362	159	8,414	3,775	15,152	—	—
Philippine Islands	76	16	—	—	—	—	92	—	—	—	—	—	—
France . .	1,958	2,478	13,706	1,091	763	2,208	22,204	6	224	3,077	37,189	19,327	—
Italy . . .	247	54	50	78	89	5	523	—	10	3,243	32,598	21,218	—
Japan . . .	1	91	85	—	—	—	177	3,164	4,452	13,198	4,427	2,264	210
Korea . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	41	—	1,463	—	—	—
Macao . .	4	—	—	—	—	—	4	241	—	—	—	—	—
Russia . .	4	59	1,223	425	157	6	1,874	105	60	—	—	—	—
Spain (including Gibraltar) .	—	—	—	—	5	—	5	—	—	—	—	—	—
Dutch Indies .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	35
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	602	—	—	1,852	2	—	2,456	—	—	450	19,550	154	—
Total .	5,947	13,650	65,813	13,867	1,811	2,473	103,561	5,517	13,165	30,333	138,731	42,963	1,234

SILK.—Distribution of Exports to Foreign Countries.—1917

DESTINATION.	Raw, White.			Raw, Yellow.			Total.	Raw, Wild.		Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.	Not Re-reeled.	Re-reeled	Steam Filature.		Not Steam Filature.	Steam Filature.				
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Pics.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom .	324	2,314	903	—	104	9	3,654	57	—	1,192	20,298	36	—
Hongkong . .	1,253	—	38,687	221	—	—	40,161	43	—	3,445	42,246	—	—
India . . .	754	351	1	10,624	356	149	12,235	—	—	—	—	—	618
Straits Settlements	10	—	—	2	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	132
United States (including Hawaii)	51	8,260	13,334	95	123	711	22,574	284	9,316	1,450	8,971	—	—
Philippine Islands	102	—	—	—	—	—	102	—	—	—	—	—	—
France . .	952	3,116	15,695	1,332	627	3,101	24,823	162	661	10,388	29,407	—	—
Italy . . .	68	10	65	20	57	130	350	94	82	3,030	9,200	15,976	—
Japan . .	34	—	1	191	—	—	226	1,954	4,222	13,940	3,211	8,882	—
Korea . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	8	178	—	2,913	—
Macao . .	614	—	—	1	—	—	615	1,318	—	—	29	—	—
Russia . . .	—	—	295	105	5	—	405	5	21	—	—	—	—
Dutch Indies .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	86
Canada . .	—	25	22	—	—	—	47	—	—	—	—	—	—
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	450	—	—	1,901	29	—	2,380	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total . .	4,612	14,076	69,003	14,492	1,301	4,100	107,584	3,926	14,310	33,623	113,992	27,807	836

The Total Export of Silk since 1905 is shown below:—

YEAR.	Raw, White.	Yellow.	Re-reeled.	Steam Filature.	Total.	Raw, Wild.	Cocoons.	Waste Silk.	Refuse Cocoons.	Waste Yarn.
	lb.	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*
1905 . .	2,055,066	1,429,066	1,180,933	6,046,266	10,711,333	3,411,200	1,894,266	11,615,200	2,774,133	7,066
1906 . .	1,817,066	1,584,800	1,812,800	6,109,466	11,324,133	3,407,333	1,547,733	9,890,933	2,262,666	5,600
1907 . .	1,843,734	1,795,333	1,963,733	6,706,133	12,308,933	3,186,133	8,901,733	14,366,533	2,947,200	14,667
1908 . .	2,210,667	1,841,333	2,046,133	6,560,800	12,658,933	4,553,066	1,785,867	11,099,467	3,788,400	72,400
1909 . .	1,594,133	1,808,533	2,477,200	6,889,867	12,769,733	4,534,800	2,525,733	11,172,800	2,316,400	20,933
1910 . .	1,445,600	2,116,800	2,599,600	8,529,200	14,691,200	3,872,266	2,406,666	14,698,400	5,045,466	3,733
1911 . .	1,582,533	1,798,400	2,042,800	7,388,800	12,812,533	4,510,800	2,790,000	15,724,933	5,098,666	19,200
1912 . .	2,783,466	2,588,533	2,990,666	7,887,600	16,250,266	4,821,466	3,052,933	13,748,400	4,830,133	69,600
1913 . .	1,548,933	2,351,066	2,740,400	9,272,133	15,912,533	3,954,933	3,395,866	15,516,266	3,473,200	65,066
1914 . .	865,466	2,954,533	1,280,133	7,568,800	11,668,933	2,809,600	3,159,200	10,803,466	1,682,800	37,066
1915 . .	904,000	1,752,666	3,470,533	8,418,533	14,545,733	4,533,866	4,566,933	15,659,200	5,594,800	80,666
1916 . .	792,933	1,848,933	2,061,466	9,104,800	13,808,133	2,490,933	4,044,400	18,494,133	5,728,400	164,533
1917 . .	614,933	1,932,266	2,050,266	9,747,066	14,344,533	2,431,466	4,463,066	15,198,933	3,707,600	111,466

TEA.—Distribution of Tea Export to Foreign Countries.—1913

To—	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Tablet.	Dust.	Total.
	lb.	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*
United Kingdom	9,816,933	327,866	—	—	—	10,144,800
Hongkong	13,028,000	638,666	10,400	—	106,533	13,783,600
India	215,866	2,283,200	—	—	2,800	2,283,200
Straits Settlements, etc.	518,333	132,666	—	—	—	714,000
Australia and New Zealand	1,136,400	354,533	—	—	—	1,490,933
South Africa (including Mauritius)	705,733	661,733	—	—	—	1,367,466
Canada	114,400	—	—	—	—	114,400
United States (including Hawaii)	6,541,600	12,620,266	—	133	16,000	19,178,000
Philippine Islands	30,533	—	—	—	—	30,533
Central and South America	174,800	—	—	—	—	174,800
Austria-Hungary	1,462,933	—	—	—	800	1,463,733
Belgium	282,533	—	—	—	—	282,533
Denmark	57,333	—	—	—	—	57,333
France	968,266	7,578,533	400	—	14,666	8,561,866
Germany	4,203,200	1,204,533	—	—	5,733	5,413,466
Italy	3,600	—	—	—	—	3,600
Netherlands	819,466	11,600	—	—	4,933	836,000
Spain (including Gibraltar)	7,333	327,600	—	—	—	334,933
Norway	400	—	—	—	—	400
Sweden	5,866	—	—	—	—	5,866
Russia (European ports)	8,180,266	9,157,466	—	—	—	17,337,733
Russia and Siberia (by land frontier)	3,683,600	55,200	4,357,866	—	—	8,096,666
,, ,, ,, (Amur and Pacific ports)	17,582,133	34,800	76,433,866	1,310, 0	—	95,361,200
Japan and Korea	449,600	97,733	133	—	—	547,466
French Indo-China	544,533	18,933	—	—	—	563,466
Siam	635,466	3,066	—	—	—	638,533
Macao	1,222,533	—	—	—	7,866	1,230,400
Dutch Indies	159,200	533	—	—	—	159,733
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	413,866	1,688,800	—	1,866	—	2,104,533
Total	73,027,733	36,979,066	80,802,666	1,312,400	159,331	192,281,200

1914

To—	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Leaf.	Dust.	Total.
	lb.	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*
United Kingdom	15,343,866	1,991,866	—	14,533	1,422,400	18,772,666
Hongkong	10,580,000	449,600	17,866	381,200	168,933	11,597,600
India	82,133	2,070,800	—	—	—	2,152,933
Straits Settlements, etc.	58,000	92,133	—	—	—	672,133
Australia and New Zealand	1,027,466	—	—	—	—	1,027,466
South Africa (including Mauritius)	84,133	—	—	—	—	84,133
Canada	867,466	1,267,200	—	—	2,933	2,137,600
United States (including Hawaii)	9,400,133	13,185,200	—	150,800	—	22,736,133
Philippine Islands	34,666	2,400	—	—	—	37,066
Central and South America	42,800	—	—	—	—	42,800
Austria-Hungary	1,010,266	27,200	—	—	—	1,037,466
Belgium	344,400	—	—	—	—	344,400
Denmark	55,600	—	—	—	—	55,600
France	962,533	5,061,066	—	3,333	—	6,026,933
Germany	3,812,533	606,400	—	—	6,133	4,425,066
Italy	4,533	—	—	—	—	4,533
Netherlands	1,974,666	—	—	—	7,200	1,981,866
Spain (including Gibraltar)	4,400	47,200	—	—	—	51,600
Sweden	5,333	—	—	—	—	5,333
Russia (European ports)	8,898,000	5,644,400	24,133	389,600	36,000	15,011,200
Russia and Siberia (by land frontier)	7,396,400	86,533	13,409,733	8,533	—	20,906,400
Russia (Amur and Pacific ports)	15,817,200	2,626,533	64,132,533	6,533	—	84,444,533
Japan and Korea	698,800	789,200	133	2,666	—	1,490,800
French Indo-China	446,000	15,066	—	—	—	461,066
Siam	650,800	1,600	—	—	—	652,400
Macao	1,209,733	—	—	—	11,333	1,221,000
Dutch Indies	264,266	400	—	—	—	264,666
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	174,533	1,790,400	—	19,466	—	1,790,400
Portugal	—	3,866	—	—	—	3,866
Total	81,772,666	35,565,066	77,851,066	976,666	1,654,933	199,439,733[1]

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[1] In this total and distributed between the separate totals for Russia are included 1,619,333 lb. sent to Russia in tablet form.

1915

Destination.	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Leaf.	Dust.	Total.
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom	134,186	10,570	—	—	25,243	169,999
Hongkong	112,073	4,974	—	793	817	118,657
India	943	19,788	208	—	—	20,939
Straits Settlements, etc.	6,334	563	—	—	—	6,897
Australia and New Zealand	15,341	4	—	—	—	15,345
South Africa (including Mauritius)	627	1	—	—	—	628
Canada	9,257	8,442	—	—	—	17,699
United States (including Hawaii)	49,925	87,747	—	—	—	137,672
Philippine Islands	414	3,793	—	—	43	7,514
South America	464	—	—	—	—	464
Denmark	15	—	—	—	—	15
France	12,371	56,822	—	—	5,026	74,219
Italy	20	8	—	—	—	28
Norway	1	—	—	—	—	1
Sweden	1	—	—	—	—	1
Netherlands	830	—	—	—	—	830
Dutch Indies	2,179	2	—	—	5	2,186
Spain (including Gibraltar)	—	636	—	—	—	636
Russia (European ports)	93,577	6,593	—	—	—	100,170
Russia and Siberia (by land frontier)	45,762	42,528	119,768	—	—	208,058
Russia (Amur ports)	40,924	74	16,843	—	—	57,841
Russia (Pacific ports)	221,663	39,128	504,499	770	1	796,773[1]
Japan	3,678	3,793	—	—	43	7,514
Korea	61	10	—	—	—	71
French Indo-China	1,176	228	—	—	—	1,404
Siam	6,013	32	—	—	—	6,045
Macao	10,325	3	—	—	111	10,439
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, etc.	2,981	24,377	—	—	49	27,407
Total	771,141	306,324	641,318	1,563	31,295	1,782,353

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[1] Inclusive of 30,712 piculs in tablet form.

1916

Destination.	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Leaf.	Dust.	Total.
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom	73,387	46,488	—	—	315	120,190
Hongkong	123,713	4,394	2	498	1,029	129,636
India	834	9,871	11	—	—	10,716
Straits Settlements	5,634	318	—	—	—	5,952
Australia and New Zealand	2,394	3	—	—	—	2,397
South Africa (including Mauritius)	142	—	—	—	—	142
Canada	6,743	5,392	—	—	—	12,135
United States (including Hawaii)	75,464	64,066	—	—	6,004	145,534
Philippine Islands	344	—	—	—	—	344
South America	1,313	—	—	—	—	1,313
Denmark	2	—	—	—	—	2
France	11,804	19,160	—	—	68	31,032
Italy	8	785	—	—	—	793
Sweden	76	—	—	—	—	76
Russia (European ports)	78,565	14,762	—	—	—	93,327
Russia and Siberia (by land frontier)	47,204	48,624	78,884	—	28	174,740
Russia (Amur ports)	55,762	71	17,282	—	—	73,115
Russia (Pacific ports)	149,162	68,195	464,006	713	6	708,751[1]
Japan	835	2,723	—	—	94	3,652
Korea	46	19	—	14	—	79
French Indo-China	1,107	13	—	—	—	1,120
Siam	4,566	35	—	—	—	4,601
Macao	4,407	—	—	—	50	4,457
Dutch Indies	1,697	7	—	4	—	1,708
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, Aden, etc.	3,019	13,802	—	—	—	16,821
Total	648,228	298,728	560,185	1,229	7,594	1,542,633

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[1] Inclusive of 26,669 piculs in tablet form.

1917

Destination.	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Leaf.	Dust.	Total.
	Piculs.	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*	*Piculs.*
United Kingdom	21,193	12,377	—	—	1,384	34,954
Hongkong	73,902	4,316	2	19	194	78,433
India	732	31,744	—	—	—	32,476
Straits Settlements	4,296	371	—	—	—	4,667
Australia and New Zealand	613	—	—	—	—	613
South Africa (including Mauritius)	54	—	—	—	—	54
Canada	6,580	4,095	—	108	301	11,084
United States (including Hawaii)	78,901	90,445	—	—	2,254	171,600
Philippine Islands	141	—	—	—	—	141
South America	1,441	—	—	—	—	1,441
Denmark	4,482	10	—	—	—	4,492
France	5,730	15,676	—	—	13	21,419
Italy	102	450	—	—	—	552
Spain (including Gibraltar)	—	349	—	—	—	349
Russia (European ports)	9,484	306	—	—	—	9,790
Russia and Siberia (by land frontier)	38,242	7,154	85,571	—	—	130,967
Russia (Amur ports)	92,241	56	77,181	—	—	170,394[1]
,, (Pacific ports)	116,684	18,211	280,598	4	4	422,502[2]
Japan	3,172	5,496	284	—	1,290	10,242
Korea	26	33	—	14	—	73
French Indo-China	1,227	188	—	—	—	1,415
Siam	3,974	8	—	—	—	3,982
Macao	8,005	—	—	—	32	8,037
Dutch Indies	833	9	—	—	—	842
Turkey, Persia, Egypt, etc.	217	4,799	—	—	—	5,016
Total	472,272	196,093	443,636	145	5,472	1,125,535

[1] Inclusive of 916 piculs in tablet form.

[2] Inclusive of 7,001 piculs in tablet form.

OVERLAND TRADE TO RUSSIA

TABLE II.—Besides the Leaf and Brick Teas forwarded via Tientsin and Kiakhta to Siberia and Russia, considerable quantities are sent from Hankow and vicinity up the Han River to Fancheng, where overland carriage is resorted to. Since 1900 the following quantities are known to have been thus forwarded to Siberia and Mongolia (there are no records of this trade in 1911 and 1912):—

Year.	Leaf.		Brick.		Stalk.		Dust.	
	lb.	£	lb.	£	lb.	£	lb.	£
1900	2,385,733	61,030	9,454,000	98,937	45,333	105	91,800	—
1901	5,185,066	88,722	2,306,400	17,425	220,400	489	—	305
1902	2,238,700	29,430	1,270,133	8,165	515,466	1,004	153,466	583
1903	18,133	278	241,066	1,526	491,606	1,045	—	—
1904	336,533	5,547	13,600	155	10,666	47	—	—
1905	240,400	4,368	100,933	1,126	22,400	126	—	—
1906	1,106,133	23,196	—	—	47,466	292	—	—
1907	243,066	5,622	—	—	35,866	244	—	—
1908	228,933	3,434	—	—	—	—	—	—
1909	266,933	4,160	—	—	44,000	236	—	—
1910	800	17	—	—	1,200	9	—	—
1913	94,400	1,232	—	—	—	—	—	—
1914	5,600	91	—	—	—	—	—	—
1915	153,600	2,390	—	—	—	—	—	—
1916	780,533	18,450	—	—	—	—	—	—
1917	305,066	5,186	—	—	—	—	—	—

TABLE III.—TOTAL EXPORT OF TEA DIRECT TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES SINCE 1900

Year.	Black.	Green.	Brick.	Tablet.	Dust.	Total.
	lb.	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*	*lb.*
1900	115,116,533	26,723,333	42,256,600	403,400	76,666	184,576,533
1901	88,733,200	25,257,333	39,136,266	1,142,666	129,600	154,399,066
1902	91,638,400	33,834,266	76,004,933	954,133	129,733	202,561,466
1903	99,882,133	40,216,000	82,461,066	1,023,866	87,606	223,670,666
1904	99,866,933	32,152,800	59,692,666	606,666	1,180,000	193,499,866
1905	79,606,000	32,283,733	69,133,066	647,866	902,400	182,573,066
1906	80,120,933	27,590,000	88,230,266	1,240,933	34,933	187,217,066
1907	94,436,400	35,306,933	80,563,466	1,430,533	2,946,000	214,683,333
1908	91,387,733	37,878,000	78,775,333	838,400	1,272,000	210,151,466
1909	82,617,600	37,557,200	77,996,800	1,325,866	294,933	199,792,400
1910	84,470,000	39,477,733	82,205,333	1,171,600	782,000	208,106,666
1911	97,890,666	39,898,266	55,554,133	1,209,733	487,600	195,040,400
1912	86,472,533	41,354,266	67 528,133	1,133,200	1,071,866	197,560,000
1913	72,280,666	36,979,066	80,802,666	1,312,300	159,333	192,281,200[1]
1914	81,772,666	35,565,066	77,851,066	1,619,333	1,654,933	199,439,733[2]
1915	102,818,800	40,843,200	85,509,066	4,094,933	4,172,666	237,647,066[3]
1916	86,430,400	39,830,400	74,691,333	3,555,866	1,012,533	205,684,400[4]
1917	62,969,600	26,145,733	59,151,466	1,055,600	729,600	150,071,333[5]

[1] Includes 747,066 lb. of leaf.

[2] Includes 976,666 lb. of leaf.

[3] Includes 208,400 lb. of leaf.

[4] Includes 163,866 lb. of leaf.

[5] Includes 19,333 lb. of leaf.

Relative Position of Producing Countries as Exporters of Tea

In 1888 the exports of tea from China amounted to 289,067,000 lb., while those from British India amounted to less than 90,000,000 lb. In 1908 the exports from China had dropped to 210,151,500 lb., while Indian exports had risen to 228,013,000 lb. The figures for 1916 were: China, 205,684,400 lb.; India, 338,470,000 lb. (April, 1915–March, 1916).

The change in the relative position of the two countries is perhaps better shown if the average exports in each of the last four quinquennial periods be compared. This is done in the following statement:—

TABLE IV

Period.	Annual Average Exports of Tea from British India.	Annual Average Exports of Tea from China.
	lb.	*lb.*
1888–92 . . .	105,529,000	242,213,000
1893–97 . . .	135,408,000	234,507,000
1898–1902 . . .	172,689,000	192,427,000
1903–1907 . . .	210,611,000	200,328,800
1908–1912 . . .	255,394.418	202,130,186
1913–9117 . . .	299,719,667	197,024,746

Thus for *India* the annual average exports have risen from 105,529,000 lb. in the period 1888–92 to 299,719,667 lb. in the period 1913–17, an increase of nearly 200,000,000 lb., or 180 per cent. On the other hand, the exports from *China* in the same periods have decreased 45,000,000 lb., or 20 per cent.

Simultaneously there has been a great development in the supply of Ceylon tea, the average annual exports having amounted in 1888–92 to about 48¾ million lb. in 1903–7 to 165½ million lb., and in 1908–12 to 188½ million lb.

Japan, whose exports during the period of 1888–92 had been nearly 48 million lb. annually, lost ground for some time but in 1916 exported 81 million lb.

The exports of tea from *Java* during the periods 1888–92 and 1893–7 averaged from 7¼ to 7¾ million lb. annually. They rose, however, from 14⅓ million lb. during 1898–1902 to nearly 26 million lb. annually in 1903–7, to an average of 44½ million lb. for 1908–12, and to an average of 75 million lb. in 1912–16.

BULLION

Imports

Countries from which Imported.	1914.				1915.		
	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.
	Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Europe . . .	—	388,578	—	388,578	—	150,732	—
America . . .	—	846,564	—	846,564	21,190	4,199,027	—
Africa . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Asia: Siam . .	—	—	—	—	—	2,367	—
India (including Burma)	—	41,426	—	41,426	—	26,702	—
Straits Settlements .	9,666	—	—	9,666	—	—	—
Saigon & Tongking.	—	18,400	—	18,400	—	12,000	—
Hongkong & Macao.	53,429	13,923,417	1,140	13,977,986	85,699	12,679,751	1,840
Japan (including Formosa)	798,072	1,273,129	—	2,071,201	711,938	3,644,847	884
Korea . . .	—	7,230	—	7,230	—	877	—
Vladivostok . .	—	—	—	—	—	1,203	—
Dutch Indies . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manila . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Imports ..	861,167	16,498,744	1,140	17,361,051	818,827	20,717,506	2,724

Exports

Countries to which Exported.	1914.				1915.		
	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.
	Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Europe . .	2,704,447	1,812,501	—	4,516,948	—	232,552	—
America . . .	4,397,531	—	—	4,397 531	12,007,433	359,706	—
India (including Burma)	167,774	3,338,671	—	3,506,445	78,800	3,132,574	—
Straits Settlements .	1,016	236,379	—	237,395	118,411	367,552	—
Dutch Indies . .	—	11,415	—	11,415	—	9,194	—
Saigon & Tongking.	—	408,133	—	408,133	—	256,733	—
Hongkong & Macao.	384,881	21,162,180	44,774	21,591,835	1,539,990	25,683,225	484
Siam	—	1,003,667	—	1,003,667	—	437,000	—
Japan (including Formosa)	6,198,061	1,973,548	1 ,2 0	8,190,869	4,059,839	137,013	7,743
Korea	8,207	118,681	6,300	133,188	406,567	95,462	279
Vladivostok . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Siberia . . .	—	56,518	—	56,518	—	8,388,809	—
Kauldja . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Persia . . .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total Exports .	13,861,917	30,121,693	70,334	44,053,944	18,211,040	39,099,820	8,506

ND SPECIE

	1916.				1917.			
Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.
Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
150,732	—	168,152	—	168,152	—	—	—	—
,220,217	10,616,545	9,195,667	—	19,812,212	100,000	7,556,833	368	7,657,201
—	—	—	—	—	—	393	—	393
2,367	—	40,000	—	40,000	—	105,300	—	105,300
26,702	—	433,390	—	433,390	—	603,780	—	603,780
—	—	—	—	—	—	5,388	—	5,388
12,000	—	14,000	—	14,000	640	1,434,026	—	1,434,666
,767,290	366,604	19,581,021	35,309	19,982,934	678,834	10,236,660	19,498	10,934,992
,357,669	8,919,907	4,510,294	839	13,431,040	13,089,241	6,646,513	6,032	19,741,786
877	61	5,966	—	6,027	2,402	8,615	—	12,017
1,203	—	—	—	—	—	908,784	—	908,784
—	—	3,139,830	—	3,139,830	—	—	835	835
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
,539,057	19,903,117	37,088,320	36,148	57,027,585	13,871,778[1]	27,507,292	26,733	41,405,803[1]

	1916.				1917.			
Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper Coins.	Total.
Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
232,552	—	2,998,273	7	2,998,280	314,268	700,949	—	1,015,217
2,367,139	—	438,215	—	438,215	—	—	—	—
,211,374	712,311	33,892,606	—	34,604,917	603,962	29,583,178	—	30,187,140
485,963	—	517,961	—	517,961	—	84,948	—	84,948
9,194	773	133,223	—	133,996	1,293	113,967	—	115,260
256,733	—	399,188	—	399,188	8,970	1,390,377	—	1,399,347
,223,699	6,018,488	19,833,968	—	25,852,456	2,957,984	10,286,331	—	13,244,315
437,000	—	189,001	—	189,001	—	57,001	—	57,001
,204,595	901,133	16,139	747	918,219	856,695	2,062,871	—	2,919,566
502,308	469,363	53,436	348	523,147	281,403	33,243	26	314,672
—	—	6,833,165	—	6,833,165	—	3,900,987	—	3,900,987
,388,809	—	53,800	—	53,800	—	135,741	—	135,741
—	—	79,028	—	79,028	—	—	—	—
—	—	328,443	—	328,443	—	—	—	—
,319,366	8,102,268	65,766,446	1,102	73,869,816	5,024,575	48,490,390[2]	—	53,514,991[2]

[1] Inclusive of *Hk. Tls.* 661 imported from Khabarovsk.

[2] ,, ,, 140,797 exported to Turkestan.

CHAPTER XII

COMMUNICATIONS

I. RAILWAYS

CHINA'S railway history began with the Woosung Railway, of 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, which was built by foreign enterprise and was formally opened on June 30, 1876. It was subsequently "redeemed" by the Chinese, and when the last instalment of the purchase money was paid in October, 1877, the rails were torn up and shipped to Formosa. Ten years later, however, a railway was in operation between Tongshan and Tientsin—the nucleus of the present Peking-Mukden Railway—and in 1897 the section from Peking to Tientsin was opened.

China now possesses 6835 miles of railway, with 2000 miles more "under construction." An Imperial Edict of May 9, 1911, ordered that all trunk lines, under construction or projected, were to be taken over by the Government, while branch railways were "to be allowed to be undertaken by the people according to their ability." This order, which contributed to the unrest that came to a head in the Revolution in October, 1911, had special reference to the Szechuan-Hupeh Railway and the Canton-Hankow Railway.

Under the Republic steps have been taken to nationalize railway expansion in China. The movement for keeping railways in the hands of the provinces through which they ran has given place to an appreciation of the advantages of a national system. The present resources of China are not equal to providing the country with the network of railways it requires ; but the Government is able to build a certain number of lines and to arrange for the construction of others on terms that do not clash with China's sovereign rights, and are satisfactory to those who contribute the capital. Something in the nature of a railway programme has been agreed upon, and will be carried out as occasion and funds offer. At the same time a distinct effort has been made to unify railway accounts and statistics. A commission for this purpose was appointed in 1913, under the presidency of Yeh Kung-ch'o and C. C. Wang, and the services of Dr. Henry C. Adams, of the United States Interstate Commerce Commission, as adviser were secured. As a result of its labours the various railway systems of whatever nationality have adopted a uniform system of accounts and statistics recommended by the Commission. Two reports dealing with the Statistics of Government Railways in China for the two half-years in 1915 have been issued.

By the end of 1913 the Government's new railway policy had borne fruit in the following contracts :—

Railway Contracts in 1913

Tatung-Chengtu Railway.—Preliminary contract signed on August 14, 1913, by representatives of the Société Belge des Chemins de Fer en Chine, and the Société Française de Construction et Exploitation des Chemins de Fer en Chine.

(A French railway from Yunnanfu to Chengtu is projected, and when it and the Chengtu-Tatung Railway are completed there will be through communication between French Indo-China and Kalgan.) The length of this railway (from Tatung to Chengtu) will be approximately 960 miles. It will connect at Tatung with the extension of the Peking-Kalgan Railway, and at Chengtu with the Hukuang Railways, and with the projected French line to Yunnanfu.

Sinyang-Pukow Railway.—The final agreement for this railway, the concession for which was granted to the British in 1898, was signed by the Minister of Communications and the representative of the British and Chinese Corporation on November 14, 1913. The railway will be between 250 and 300 miles in length, according to the route finally selected. The agreement provides for a loan of £3,000,000 at 5 per cent interest and 5 per cent commission, redeemable in forty years.

Shasi-Singyi Railway.—Contract signed between Lord ffrench, as representative of Messrs. Pauling and Co., and the Minister of Communications on December 18, 1913. The railway is to start from a point on the Yangtze opposite Shasi, and to terminate at Singyi in Kueichow, touching en route Changteh, Yuenchow, and Kweiyang. A branch line will connect Changteh with Changsha, and it is probable that the Singyi terminus will eventually be linked up with Yunnan by a projected French railway. At Shasi the new railway will connect directly, or by branch line, with the Hukuang system. The line will be about 800 miles in length, and will be pledged as security to the builders, who will construct it on a fixed percentage of profit basis.

German Lines.—Towards the end of December it was announced that the German Government had concluded an agreement with the Chinese Government for the construction of two railways : (1) From Kaomi on the Shantung Railway, via Ichowfu to Hanchwang, the intersecting point of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and the Grand Canal. (2) A line connecting the Tientsin-Pukow and the Peking-Hankow Railways between Tsinanfu and Shuntehfu. Estimated capital for both lines, £3,500,000.

Sino-French Undertaking.—La Banque Industrielle de Chine signed a contract in November, 1913, for a loan of 150,000,000 francs, of which 60,000,000 frs. were to be spent on harbour works at Pukow, and the same sum for the construction of a bridge over the Yangtze connecting Wuchang and Hankow. Early in 1914 another agreement was made by this Bank for the construction of a railway from Yamchow (near Pakhoi) via Nanning, Posé and Singyi to Yunnanfu, and thence via Weining to Chungking—an aggregate distance of 1000 miles. The first loan is to be for £4,000,000 at 5 per cent.

Japanese Railways in Manchuria.—At the end of 1913 negotiations were in progress between the Chinese and Japanese Governments for the construction by the latter of a network of railways in Southern Manchuria, comprising the following lines: Changchun-Taonan, Taonan-Jehol, Ssupingkai-Chenchiatung, Kaiyuan-Hailung-Kirin, and a line from a point on the Taonan-Jehol Railway to a seaport. But it was not until December, 1915, that a loan agreement was signed for the construction of the first line from Sipingchi (Ssupingkai), a station 120 miles north of Mukden, to Chenchiatung (Liaoyuanchow), in Mongolia, a distance of 52 miles. Construction began in the spring of 1917, and the first trial run over the whole line took place on November 30, 1917.

RAILWAY CONTRACTS IN 1914

In March, 1914, an agreement was signed between the Chinese Government and the British and Chinese Corporation for the construction of a railway from Nanking to Hunan, connecting with the Peking-Hankow Railway at Chuchow, south of Changsha. The line will run via Ningkwo, Hueichow and Nanchang to Pinghsiang, with branches to Wuhu, Hangchow and Kuangtechow, an estimated total length of 1000 miles. The Pinghsiang-Chuchow line is to be incorporated as an integral part of the new railway. Under the agreement the Chinese Government takes over the Anhui Provincial Railway. The amount of the loan was to be £8,000,000, redeemable in 45 years. The engineer-in-chief, the chief accountant and traffic manager will be British.

During the same year the Government took over from the provincial companies the two sections of the Kiangsu-Chekiang Railway, and placed them under the administration of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway. The two systems are connected at Shanghai by a line of 8½ miles, starting from Lunghua, on the Shanghai-Hangchow Railway, and running via Sicawei and Jessfield to Chenyu on the Nanking Railway.

The outbreak of the European War caused a serious setback to railway construction in China. With the exception of the Peking-Kalgan, Canton-Hankow, and the Kiangsu-Chekiang lines, very little progress was made in lines actually under construction, while the big schemes contracted for in 1913 and 1914 were left in abeyance, and owing to the state of the international money market may remain so even for some time after the war. Work on the American section of the Szechuan-Hupeh Railway (see *infra*) was definitely abandoned and all material lying at Ichang was reported to have been sold to the British section of the Canton-Hankow Railway.

RAILWAY CONTRACT IN 1916

An agreement was signed on March 28, 1916, between the Chinese Government and the Russo-Asiatic Bank, providing for the construction of a railway from Harbin to Aigun via Mergen, with a branch line from Mergen to Tsitsihar. A loan of £5,000,000, at 5 per cent interest, secured on the railway, was to be floated for the purpose after the termination of the European War. The construction is to be for the account and at the risk of the Chinese Government. The chief engineer, the chief accountant, and the comptroller are to be Russians, recommended by the Russo-Asiatic Bank. Provision is also made for the construction of the following branch lines : Tsitsihar to Bodune, Bodune to Harbin.

CONTRACTS IN 1917 AND 1918

The revised Changchun-Kirin Loan Agreement was concluded between the Chinese Government and the South Manchuria Railway on October 12, 1917. The loan was to be for Yen 6,500,000, for a term of 30 years, secured on the railway property and receipts, and during the currency of the loan the management of the line will devolve on the South Manchuria Railway on behalf of the Chinese Government.

On October 10, 1917, the Industrial Bank of Japan announced the issue of a loan of Yen 50,000,000 at 5½ per cent (issue price 94½), in connexion with the four railways in Mongolia and Manchuria, and two others in Shantung and Kiangsu (i.e. the German lines mentioned on page 215).

A contract was concluded on May 17, 1916, by the Chinese Government with the Siems Carey Railway and Canal Co. for the construction of 1100 miles of railway. Among the proposed lines are (1) a line from Hengchowfu, in Hunan Province, via Yungchowfu in the same province, and Chuanchow, Kueilin, Linchow, Tsienkiang, and Kueihsien in Kuangsi, to Chinchow (Yamchow), in the Gulf of Tongking—a distance of 560 miles ; (2) Choukiakow (Honan)-Yencheng-Nanyang-Siangyang (Hupeh)—225 miles ; (3) Sinyangchow (Honan)-Yunyang (Hupeh)—227 miles ; (4) Yunyang (Hupeh)-Hanchungfu (Shansi)—360 miles.

In the following list the words "under construction" have been stretched to include lines on which work has been begun, even though it may have been abandoned since for lack of funds or other reasons.

A.—Opened to Traffic or under Construction[1]

RAILWAY.	Date of Opening.	Mileage.	
		Opened.	Under Construction.
1. Chinese Eastern Railway (1081 miles).			
a. Manchouli-Harbin-Suifenho (5 ft. gauge)		921	
b. Harbin-Kuanchengtze (5 ft. gauge)		152	
Branch.—Angangki-Tsitsihar (metre gauge)	Aug. 1909	17	
2. South Manchuria Railway.			
a. Kuanchengtze (Changchun)-Dairen (Dalny)		439	
Branches.			
1. Kuanchengtze (Changchun)-Kirin-*Hueining*	Oct. 1912	80	200
2. Mukden-Antung (converted to broad gauge)	Nov. 1911	189	
3. Suchiatun-Fushun Collieries (converted to broad gauge)	May, 1908	39	
4. Tashihkiao-Yingkow (Newchwang) (converted to broad gauge)	May, 1908	13½	
5. Choushuitze-Port Arthur (converted to broad gauge)	,, ,,	28½	
6. Ssupingkai (Sipingchi)-Chengchiatung-*Taonan* (? *Kailu*)	Dec. 1917	52	130
7. Kaiyuan-Hailungcheng-*Kirin*			250
3. Peking-Mukden (Ching-Feng) Railway.			
a. Peking-Tientsin-Shanhaikuan-Hsinmintun-Mukden	1903	525	

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[1] Sections not yet completed are indicated by *italics.*

Railway.	Date of Opening.	Mileage.	
		Opened.	Under Construction.
Branches.			
1. Peking-Tunchow		14	
2. Peking-Loukoukiao (junction with Hankow Railway)		4	
3. Tangho-Chinwangtao		6	
4. Lienshan-Hulutao Harbour		7	
5. Koupangtze-Yingkow(Newchwang)		57	
6. Tientsin to Hsiku		3	
4. Peking-Kalgan Railway.			
a. Peking-Kalgan	Sept. 1909	131	
b. Kalgan-Tatungfu-Fengchen-*Suiyuan*	Sept. 1915	135	110
Branch.—Peking-Mentaokao *Tatunghsien*		16½	
5. Peking-Hankow Railway	Dec. 1905	755	
Branches.			
1. Liangsiang-Tuli (To local coal mines.)		12	
2. Liuliho-Choukueichuang (To local coal mines.)		10	
3. Kaoyihsien-Lincheng (To local coal mines.)		10	
4. Kaopeitien-Siling (Imperial Tombs), metre gauge		26	
5. Paotingfu branch		3	
6. Tientsin-Pukow Railway (629 miles).	(Through running June, 1912)		
a. Northern section (German) (390½ miles).			
Tientsin-Tsinanfu-Taianfu-Hanchuang	Feb. 5, 1912	392	
Branches.			
1. Chentangchwang - Liangwangchwang		16	
2. Lincheng-Tsaochwang	(May, 1912)	19	
3. Yenchowfu-Tsiningchow	(Nov. 1912)	19½	
4. Lokou-Huangtaichiao	(June, 1913)	5½	

RAILWAY.	Date of Opening.	Mileage.	
		Opened.	Under Construction.
5. Tuliu-Pauto-Techow-Grand Canal		2½	
b. Southern section (British). Pukow-Hanchuang	June, 1912	237	
7. Shantung Railway. Tsingtao-Tsinanfu	June, 1904	256	
Branches.			
Changtien-Poshan		28	
Tsaochuang-Taierhchuang	1910	26	
8. Shansi Railways.			
a. Taiyuanfu-Shihkiaochuang (metre gauge), known as Chengtai Railway	1907	151	
b. Yutze-Taiku-*Pingyaohsien* (See B 6)			40
9. Taokow-Chinghua Railway. Taokow-Sinsiang-Chinghuachen-*Huaichingfu*	1904	93	14
Branch. Yiuchiafen-Taoching		1	
10 Kaifeng-Honan Railway. Hsuchoufu-Kaifeng-Chengchow-Honanfu	Dec. 1908 To Hsuchoufu June, 1916	315	
11. Honanfu-Sianfu Railway (240 miles) Honanfu-Mienchih—*Tungkuan*		50	190
12. Tayeh Mines Railway (Hupeh) (narrow gauge) (Tiehshanpu-Huangshihkang)		17	
13. Szechuan-Hupeh Railway (approx. 800 miles)			720
Chengtu - Chungking - Kueichou (Sze)-*Ichang-Chingmen-Siangyang-Kuangshui*			80
Kuangshui is on the Peking-Hankow Railway, S. of the Honan border. Passed under Government control 1911.			

RAILWAY.	Date of Opening.	Mileage.	
		Opened.	Under Construction.
14. Canton-Hankow Railway (Yueh-Han). Total length (approx.) 700 miles.			
a. Canton-Yintak-Shiuchou (140 miles)	(1909-11	140	
b. *Shiuchou-Hengchou* (209 miles)			209
c. *Hengchou*-Chuchou-Changsha (130 miles)		33	97
d. Changsha-Yochow (120 ,,)	Sept. 1918	120	
e. Yochow-Wuchang (Hankow) (160 miles)	Sept. 1917	160	
Branches.			
a. Canton-Fatshan-Samshui .	1904	32	
b. Chuchou-Pinghsiang . .	1902	65	
15. Canton-Kowloon Railway (112 miles)	Oct. 1911		
a. Canton-Shumchun (Chinese).		89½	
b. Shumchun-Kowloon (British)	Oct. 1910	22½	
Branch. *Canton City Loop line* to connect with Hankow Railway			10
16. Sunning Railway. Samkaphoi-Sunning-Kungyik-Kongmoon		63½	
Branch. Sunning-*Paksha-Yeungkong* .			70
17. Yunnan Railway. Yunnanfu-Laokai (Tongking frontier) (metre gauge) . .	Apr. 1910	289	
18. Swatow Railway. Swatow-Chaochoufu. . .	Nov. 1906	26½	
19. Amoy Railway. Amoy-Changchoufu. . .		18	15
20. Kiangsi Railway. Kiukiang-Tukiapiu-Nanchang-*Yenpingfu-Foochow* .		86	
21. Anhui Railway. Wuhu-*Ningkuofu-Kuangtechou* (-*Huchoufu*) . . . . Begun 1906—construction suspended.	Taken over by Government and incorporated in the Nanking-Hunan concession (q.v.)		

RAILWAY.	Date of Opening.	Mileage.	
		Opened.	Under Construction.
22. Kiangsu-Chekiang Railway.			
a. Shanghai-Kashing-Hangchow	Aug. 1908	118	
b. Hangchow-*Pokwan*-Ningpo		53	
23. Shanghai-Nanking Railway.			
Shanghai-Soochow-Chinkiang-Nanking	Apr. 1908	193	
Branches.			
a. Shanghai-Woosung	1898	10	
b. Nanking City Railway	Aug. 1908	7	
c. Junction line connecting 22 and 23 at Shanghai	Dec. 1916	8	
24. Tai-Tsao Railway (Chung Hsing Coal Railway.			
Yihsien (i.e. coalmines 7 miles north of town)-Taierhchwang (on the Grand Canal)	1915	27	
Total		6835	2135

In the following list of Railways Projected several lines are as near to seeing construction begun as some of those in A. Others are more remote projects. In all China's railway programme may be said to contemplate the construction of 14,500 miles, and of this total length work will be begun or continued on 6000 miles as soon as the state of the international money market allows.

B.—Railways Projected

Railway.	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.).
1. Kirin-Hunchun (Korean frontier)	Joint Chino-Japanese enterprise. See A 2.	240
2. Ninguta-Mulin.	To connect with Chinese Eastern Railway.	50
3. Kungchuling-Itungchou.	Branch of South Manchuria Railway.	50
4. Harbin-Shuhui (due east).	Chinese, private. Preliminary surveys for narrow gauge.	150

Railways Projected—*continued*

Railway.	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.).
5. Chinchou-Aigun.[1] *Alternative Schemes.* *a.* Chinchou-Khailar (500 miles) *b.* Chinchou-Taonanfu (320 ,,) *c.* Harbin-Aigun. (300 ,,) (See No. 7.)	British-American preliminary Agreement, signed January, 1910. Negotiations suspended owing to Russian and Japanese representations. *c.* Proposal is to build a line from Durshenshan (via Hulan and Mergen.	800
6. Chihli Extra-Mural Railways. *a.* Peking-Jehol (130 miles) *b.* Jehol-Chihfeng (140 ,,) *c.* Chingchow-Chihfeng (190 ,,) *d.* Kalgan-Dolonor (190 ,,) *e.* Dolonor-Chihfeng (130 ,,)		780
7. Harbin-Mergen-Aigun-Blagoveshchensk (410 miles). Branch line: Mergen-Tsitsihar (150 miles).	Russian concession, March 28, 1916. Loan to be floated after the European War.	660
8. Kiakhta-Urga.	Russian scheme.	200
9. Tatungfu-Chengtu Railway. Tatung - Taiyuan - Tungkuan - Sianfu-Hanchungfu-Chengtu. (See "Railways Contracted for in 1913," *supra.*)	Loan agreement signed July, 1913, with Franco-Belgian Syndicate. Concession to include running rights over Tungkuan-Sianfu section of No. 11.	960
10. Northern Trunk System. Suiyuan (A. 4)-Kiakhta.		750
11. North - Western Grand Trunk system. Ili-Lanchow-Sianfu-Tungkuan-Honanfu-Kaifeng-Hsuchoufu-Tsingkiangpu-Haichow.	Proposal (1909) of Ministry of Communications to connect Ili with the sea via Sianfu.	3000

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[1] The proposal to build a line from Hsinmintun to Fakumen was vetoed by the Japanese Government as being in conflict with China's undertaking not to construct a line parallel to the South Manchuria Railway, and by the Agreement of September 1, 1909, China has undertaken not to build this line without Japan's consent. The Japanese agreement of 1915 (p. 216) provides for a Taonan-Jehol line with a branch to a seaport.

Railways Projected—*continued*

Railway.	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.).
Sections. *a.* Ili-Lanchow (1910 miles) *b.* Lanchou-Sianfu (350 ,,) *c.* Sianfu-Tungkuan (85 ,,) *d.* Tungkuan-Honanfu (150 ,,) *e.* Honan-Kaifeng (140 ,,) *f.* Kaifeng-Hsuchoufu (175 ,,) *g.* Hsuchoufu - Tsingkiangpu (120 ,,) *h.* Tsingkiangpu - Haichow (70 ,,)	A preliminary agreement with a Belgian syndicate for a loan of 250,000,000 francs was signed in October 1912, for the construction of a line from Honan to Sianfu with extensions to Haichow and Lanchow. (See A 10.) Original private company surrendered its rights to the Government.[1]	
12. Chengting (Chihli)-Tehchou (Shantung) Connecting line between Peking-Hankow and Tientsin-Pukow Railways.	Proposal of Ministry of Communications. Surveys completed. Now included in Japanese concession. See p. 216.	110
13. Sinyang-Pukow Railway. (See "Railways Contracted for in 1913," *supra.*)	Line will start from Wu-Yi, 20 miles north of Pukow, and run via Luchow, Liuanchow, and Kuangchow. Surveys completed.	270
14. Hupeh Railways. Siangyang-Shasi. Siangyang-Kuanghsui. (See also *supra.*)	 Surveyed 1911. ,, ,,	 207 130
15. Shasi-Singyifu Railway.	To start from a point on the Yangtze opposite Shasi, thence via Changteh, Yuanchow, and Kueiyang to Singyifu. British concession. Length of line 655 miles, of branch, Changteh to Changsha, 105 miles.	760
16. Chefoo-Weihsien (Shantung Railway).	Surveys completed. Capital to be provided, half by Chinese merchants in Shantung and half by Government. Estimated cost Tls. 10,000,000 including branch line to Lungkow.	170

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[1] Sections *e* and *f* have been completed; *d* is under construction. No decision has yet been reached regarding the terminus of this line on the coast, both Haimenting and Haichow being favoured.

Railways Projected—*continued*

Railway.	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.).
17. Kaomi-Yihsien (Shantung province). To connect Shantung Railway at Kaomi or Kiaochou with Tientsin-Pukow Railway at Yihsien via Ichoufu.	Construction provided for under Kiaochou Agreement of 1908 (German). Now included in Japanese concession. See p. 216.	200
18. Yenchoufu (Shantung)-Kaifengfu (Honan) via Tsaochoufu.	Surveyed by German engineers, 1910. Yenchoufu-Tsiningchow now under construction as branch of Tientsin-Pukow Railway (q.v.).	230
19. Central Kiangsu Railway. Icheng-Shiherhuei-Kuachou-Yangchou-Taichoufu-Tsingkiangpu.	Surveyed 1910. To be taken over by the Government.	60
20. Kueilin-Chenchou (Kuangsi province). To connect with Canton-Hankow Railway at Chengchou.	Surveyed by British engineers 1909. Chinese company formed, but no funds raised.	180
21. Kuangsi Railway. This line would run from Canton to Wuchow, Nanning, Lungchou, and connect at Langson with the Tongking Railway system.	Sections surveyed. Preliminary survey from Wuchow to Konghow made in May, 1911.	550
22. Yamchou-Chungking Railway.	Concession granted (1914) to La Banque Industrielle de Chine to build line from port of Yamchow, west of Pakhoi, via Nanning, Posé, Singyi to Yunnanfu, thence via Weining to Chungking.	1000
23. Nanking-Changsha Railway.	Concession granted to the British and Chinese Corporation (1914). Line to run from Nanking via Ningkow, Hueichow, Nanchang and Pinghsiang. Branches to Wuhu, Hangchow, and Kuangtehchow.	1000

Railways Projected—*continued*

Railway.	State of Scheme, etc.	Mileage (approx.).
24. Yunnan-Szechuan Railway. Yunnanfu-Suifu (or Luchow).	Survey by American engineers completed February, 1911.	450
25. Yunnanfu-Pose.	Pose to Kutsingfu surveyed by Chinese engineer in 1911. American engineers are reported to have surveyed the Yunnan-Kutsingfu section.	
26. Tengyueh-Bhamo.	Surveyed.	123
27. Macao-Fatshan.	Concession to Chinese syndicate, 1911.	56
28. Swatow-Sheklun. Swatow- Puning - Hueilai - Lukfung - Waichou - Sheklun, junction with Canton-Kowloon Railway.	Funds being raised.	200
29. Sunning Railway Extension (see A. 16) Sunning to Yeungkong (Makyeung River).		70
30. Shekwan-Amoy.	Connecting with Canton-Hankow Railway. To be built by Provincial syndicate.	375
31. Siems-Carey Concession (see p. 217).		1100

RAILWAY ADMINISTRATIONS.

Government Railway Statistics, 1915

In 1916 the Ministry of Communications published a Preliminary Report on the Statistics of Government Railways in China for the six months ending June 30, 1915. A second volume appeared in 1918 dealing with the second half of 1915. The reports cover mileage, rolling stock, investment, operation, and income, and give a condensed balance sheet, in addition to analysing train and locomotive mileage, passenger and freight traffic and operating expenses.

The total mileage of public and private lines over which the Ministry of Communications exercised control in 1915 was given as 3703 miles (including the Hsuchow-Kaifeng section of the Kaifeng-Honan Railway), of which 150 miles belong to private companies.

Rolling stock on the Government-owned lines was returned as follows (the figures in brackets being the number per 100 miles of railway):—Locomotives, 629 (7); passenger coaches, 1280 (14); goods trucks, 10,652 (121).

The following table compares the capital per mile of line of the Chinese Government Railways, as reported on December 31st, 1915, with the capital per mile of line of railways in other countries for the year 1913 (*Commerce Reports of the Department of Commerce, U.S.A.*, No. 246, 1918):—

Countries.	Capital per mile of line.	Countries.	Capital per mile of line.
	$ Mexican.		$ Mexican.
China . . .	121,064	United States . .	65,861
Germany . . .	120,049	Australia . . .	55,108
Japan . . .	88,633	South Africa . .	48,527
Russia . . .	86,968	India . . .	46,343

The result of the year's working was as follows:—

	1st Six Months. $	2nd Six Months. $
Total Operating Revenues . . .	27,273,475	29,016,739
,, ,, Expenses . . .	13,636,740	16,178,544
Net ,, Revenue . . .	13,636,735	12,838,195
Net Income Debits . . .	8,243,702	8,518,193
Surplus	5,393,033	4,320,002

From the latter figure has to be deducted the net operating revenue of the new Kalgan-Suiyuan Railway (which was not formally opened in 1915) of $129,279, leaving a net credit balance for all Government railways for the half-year ending December 31, 1915, of $4,190,723.

Thus the total net credit balance for the year 1915 amounted to $9,583,756. This sum does not include any provision for interest on Government investment, although interest on foreign loans is included in the operating expenses.

The total investment, $409,523,351, is divided into cost of roads and equipment, $406,407,661; other physical property, $467,730; and non-physical assets, $2,647,959. The cost of road and equipment is divided into construction accounts and financial accounts. The totals of the construction and financial accounts are as follows:—

Items.	Amount.	Per cent of total.
CONSTRUCTION ACCOUNTS.	$	
Tracks	83,501,327	23
Rolling stock	69,276,154	19
Bridge work	63,500,258	18
Formation	27,316,652	8
Stations and buildings	26,736,244	8
Land	17,856,271	5
Central mechanical works	5,821,473	2
Maintenance	5,105,778	2
Plant	3,849,681	1
Signals and switches	3,616,053	1
Preliminary expenditures	2,658,655	1
Telegraphs and telephones	1,975,112	—
Tunnels	1,954,119	—
Docks, harbours and wharves	1,715,857	—
Line protection	795,631	—
Floating equipment	482,327	—
Special mechanical works	396,140	—
General expenditures	45,187,698	12
Total	$361,745,430	100

Items.	Amount.	Per cent of total.
FINANCIAL ACCOUNTS.	$	
Interest during construction	42,696,063	67
Exchange on foreign loans	457,217	—
Unclassified	21,129,526	33
Total	64,282,806	100
Total construction and financial accounts	426,028,236	—
Deduct receipts on capital account	19,620,575	—
Total cost of road and equipment	$406,407,661	

Operating Accounts, 1915.

Lines.	Operating Revenues.	Operating Expenses.	Net Income Debits.	Balance on Year's Working.
	$	$	$	$
Peking-Hankow	17,141,095	7,120,173	3,551,350	+6,469,572
Peking-Mukden	15,277,931	7,579,599	1,094,725	+6,603,607
Tientsin-Pukow	8,525,038	5,307,033	5,790,792	−2,572,787
Shanghai-Nanking	3,418,059	2,023,654	1,881,616	− 487,211
Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo	1,914,242	1,468,402	890,225	− 444,385
Peking-Kalgan	2,732,392	1,446,440	10,364	+1,275,588
Kalgan-Suiyuan	881,102	510,063	—	+ 371,039
Chengtai (A. 8)	2,111,557	1,319,499	910,035	− 117,977
Taokow-Chinghua	633,435	379,776	477,599	− 223,940
Kaifeng-Honan	1,156,156	531,734	879,133	− 254,711
Kirin-Changchun	911,102	763,537	205,829	− 58,264
Chuchow-Pinghsiang	686,714	479,752	+1,518[1]	+ 208,480
Canton-Kowloon	805,762	804,547	1,009,036	−1,007,821
Canton-Samshui	850,565	480,010	231	+ 370,324
Changchow-Amoy	17,850	44,311	62,477	− 88,938
	$57,063,001	$30,258,532	$16,761,895	$9,671,535[2]

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[1] Second half-year only.

[2] $371,039, the net operating revenues of the Kalgan-Suiyuan Railway, excluded and charged to capital.

Detailed Balance Sheet.—The following is the detailed balance sheet giving the amount of the assets and liabilities of all Chinese Government railways on December 31, 1915:—

Classification.	$	Classification.	$
ASSETS.		LIABILITIES.	
Cost of road and equipment	406,407,661.57	Shares	3,915,644.48
Cost of other physical property	467,730.61	Permanent Government investments	108,649,720.90
Cost of non-physical assets	2,647,959.81	Mortgage bonds	274,040,303.48
Total investment assets	409,523,351.99	Other secured indebtedness	14,796,925.97
Cash	10,851,357.69	Total capital liabilities	401,402,594.83
Loans and bills of exchange	30,000.00		
Government railways	230,043.59	Loans and bills of exchange	3,724,408.55
Private companies	105,145.60	Government railways	276,654.45
Home line	1,918,959.60	Private companies	12,925.19
Other railways	1,334,011.38	Matured liabilities unpaid	1,475,683.33
Sundry debtors	754,868.36	Other railways	941,148.09
Stores	14,385,578.07	Sundry creditors	1,987,056.08
Total working assets	29,609,964.29	Total working liabilities	8,417,875.69
Temporary advances to Government	3,639,981.90	Temporary advances from Government	29,487,481.14
Payments made in advance	1,334,460.96	Depreciation reserve	19,574,073.04
Unextinguished discounts on funded debt	12,640,538.58	Miscellaneous deferred credits	569,133.48
Special funds	1,245,287.52	Total deferred credits	49,630,687.66
Miscellaneous deferred debits	5,039,636.83		
Total deferred debits	23,899,905.79	Additions to property through surplus	19,464,591.37
Balance or accumulated deficit	26,972,907.95	Funded debt retired through surplus	9,073,717.18
Grand total	490,006,130.02	Free surplus	2,016,663.29
		Total accumulated surplus	30,554,971.84
		Grand total	490,006,130.02

Working Statistics.—Other statistics for the year's working are a follows:—

	Total.	Per kilometre of line.
No. of locomotive kilometres	29,334,839	5,386
,, train ,,	20,494,650	3,763
,, passengers originated	25,230,978	4,633
,, passenger kilometres	1,901,524,065	349,160
Average number of passengers per passenger train	199	—
No. of tons of goods originated	6,729,151	2,720
,, ton kilometres	14,813,791	413,289
Average number of tons goods per goods train	206	—

The latest available information concerning each railway open to traffic or actually "under construction" appears on the following pages.

1. CHINESE GOVERNMENT RAILWAYS

PEKING-MUKDEN (CHINGFENG) RAILWAY

(*Via Tientsin and Shanhaikuan*)

This railway developed from the Kaiping tramway, which was constructed in 1880–1 by Mr. C. W. Kinder, C.M.G., who also completed the Peking-Mukden line.

Capital, $53,264,676. Source, Anglo-Chinese.

Cost of construction: Expenditure on lines open for traffic, $47,246,706·47; expenditure on capital works from revenue, $8,983,970·27. Mileage (total), 606: main line, 526 miles; branch lines, 80 miles, including the line to Peitaho Beech (6 miles). Sidings: 185 miles.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer-in-Chief: D. Poyntz Ricketts, M.Inst.C.E. (British).

Opened to traffic, Peking to Tientsin, 1897. Main line completed 1903.

Junctions with other systems at: Loukoukiao, with Kinhan Railway; Mukden and Newchwang, with South Manchuria Railway; Fengtai, with Peking-Kalgan Railway; Tientsin, with Tientsin-Pukow Railway.

Branches: Peking to Tungchow (14 miles); Fengtai to Loukoukiao (4 miles); Tientsin to Hsiku (3 miles); Koupangtze to Yingkow (Newchwang) (57 miles); Tangho to Chinwangtao (6 miles); Lienshen to Hulutao Harbour (7 miles).

Head office, Tientsin.

Returns:	1916	1917
Receipts . . .	$14,809,724	$16,996,642
Expenditure . .	5,953,375	6,529,967
Net Revenue .	$8,856,149	$10,466,675
Ratio of working expenses to Revenue	40·32%	38·42%

Passengers carried, 3,797,868. Freight, 5,405,863 tons.

Receipts from passengers, $7,253,881. From freight, $9,491,230.

Locomotives (1917): 20 Passenger, 106 Goods, 27 Shunting.

Coaching vehicles: 348 passenger cars and brake vans.

Goods vehicles: 3364.

Dimensions of principal bridges.

Lanho Bridge: 5 spans of 200 ft.; 10 spans of 100 ft.; and 2 of 30 ft.

Chunghousou (west of Suichunghsien): 12, 8, and 16 spans of 100 ft.

Liukuho Bridge: 24 spans of 100 ft. and 1 of 60 ft.

Nu-erh-ho Bridge: 16 spans of 60 ft.

Hsiaolingho Bridge (near Chinchou): 12 spans of 100 ft.

Talingho Bridge: 26 spans of 100 ft.

Liaoho Bridge: 20 spans of 100 ft.

Shuangtaitzu Canal Bridge: 1 span of 200 ft. and 5 of 60 ft.

Best through run: Peking to Tientsin, 83·9 miles in 2 h. 35 m.

Remarks : The Kaiping tramway, which was completed in 1881, from Tongshan to Hsukochuang, a distance of 7 miles, was converted into a railway and extended to Lutai, Tongku, Tientsin and eventually to Peking, in a westerly direction, and to Shanhaikuan, Kaopangtzu and Hsinmintun in a north-easterly direction. In 1907 the railway purchased the Japanese light railway between Hsinmintun and Mukden, which has since been converted to standard gauge, so that through trains now run between Peking and Mukden.

An extension of the railway at Mukden was completed early in 1912. The new line crosses below the South Manchuria Railway at the old level crossing formed by the main road to the previous Mukden terminus, and runs up to the mud wall surrounding the south-west suburbs, and in close proximity to the present American Consulate ; while from this new terminus, and connecting it with the Japanese station about 1½ miles distant, there runs a short loop line for the convenience of through passengers and luggage to the S.M.R system.

PEKING-HANKOW (LUHAN, CHINGHAN, KINHAN, OR PEHAN) RAILWAY

Construction begun, 1898.

Capital, Tls. 105,912,457·16 (Chinese), and £500,000 (loan from Anglo-French capitalists). Source, French and Belgian.

Cost of construction, $87,956,765·22. Mileage (total), 817.

Mileage (main line), 755. Branch lines, 62·14.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in. (except Kaopeitien-Siling branch, which is metre gauge).

Engineer in charge of original construction, M. Jean Jadot (Belgian).

Opened to traffic, December, 1905.

Junctions with other systems at : Loukoukiao, with Peking-Mukden and Peking-Kalgan Railways ; Shihchiachuang, with the Shansi Railway ; Chengchow, with the Kaifengfu-Honan Railway ; Sinsianghsien, with the Taokow-Chinghua Railway ; Sinyangchow, with projected railway to Fengyang ; Kuangshui, with Hukuang Railways.

Branches : Liangsiang to Tuli (12 miles) ; Liuliho to Choukueichuang (10 miles) ; Kaopeitien to Siling (26 miles) ; Kaoyihsien to Lincheng (10 miles) ; Loukoukiao to Fengtai ; Paotingfu to Paotingnankuan (3 miles).

Head office, Peking.

Receipts for year 1912 : first half-year, $6,047,884·19 ; second half-year, $7,509,829·37 ; total, $13,557,713·56.

Expenditure for year 1912 : first half-year, $3,910,010·69 ; second half-year, $4,401,402·58 ; total, $8,311,413·27.

Number of passengers carried, 1911 (no returns 1912), 2,147,586. Amount of freight, 1911, 1,854,370 tons.

Receipts from passengers, 1911, $3,653,977·43. From freight, 1911, $7,657,558·96.

1913 : Receipts, $16,774,794 ; expenditure, $9,226,203. 1914, second half-year : Receipts, $8,496,926 ; expenditure, $4,384,569.

1915 : Receipts (approx.), $16,560,000 ; expenditure, $10,700,000.

Remarks: This railway was originally constructed from a loan of £4,500,000 from Franco-Belgian capitalists. The loan was redeemed in 1908 from a loan of £5,000,000 from Anglo-French capitalists, secured upon sundry taxes of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hupeh, and Chihli. Reverted to Chinese control on January 1, 1909. The Liangsiang-Tuli, Liuliho-Choukueichuang and Kaoyihsien-Lincheng branches connect the main line with local coal mines. The Kaopeitien-Siling Light Railway establishes communication with the Imperial tombs.

Official Report.

In July and August, 1912, the *Official Gazette* published elaborate details and statistics in regard to the Peking-Hankow Railway, showing the position of the railway on December 31, 1910. From these details the following have been extracted:—

VALUE OF PROPERTY AT COST

Buildings, Real Estate, and Permanent Way.

(*In the following figures cents are omitted, except in the total.*)

	Kuping Taels.
Area of property, 62,477 mow (10,400 acres, approximate)	1,035,375
Main line (Paotingfu-Hankow), 1069 kilometres	13,928,674
Five branch lines, 57 kilometres	135,513
Buildings, machine shops, wood sheds, and car sheds	652,275
Head office buildings at Peking, and foreign residences	427,277
Buildings along the railway, huts, water-towers, and pumping stations	353,557
14 turntables	90,053
Bridges: 1285 stone bridges and culverts, 875 large and small iron bridges, 28 drainage bridges, and 5 wooden bridges	6,888,232
Tunnels: 2	159,988
Stations, platforms, and shelters	19,982
Peking-Paotingfu Railways (including 232 cars), 131 kms.	5,621,610
Connection between the two systems at Paotingfu (15 kms.)	344,526
Branch to Siling, 43 kilometres	606,733
	31,386,559

Plant, Rolling Stock, and Investments.

	Kuping Taels.
115 locomotives and 80 tenders (exclusive of 9 locomotives and 5 tenders on the Peking-Paotingfu section)	3,412,357
230 passenger and private cars (including 22 first class and 32 second class sleeping cars, but excluding 51 passenger coaches taken over with the Peking-Paotingfu section)	1,656,938
511 covered goods wagons (4 worn out and discarded, not included)	1,032,101
1081 open goods wagons (168 taken over with the Peking-Paotingfu section, and 26 discarded are not included)	2,532,041
Expenses for altering and fitting up cars	311,143
Machinery	376,294
Fittings	513,005
Stores	1,387,459

Plant, Rolling Stock, and Investments (*continued*) —

	Kuping Taels.
Money in bank	2,368,764
Investments, loans, etc.	1,702,184
Money on hand	159,467
Total	15,451,859
Buildings, etc.	31,386,559
Grand total	46,838,419

Locomotives: 85 tender and 39 tank locomotives, mostly of Belgian make.

Other Rolling Stock: 290 passenger coaches, including 22 first and 32 second class sleeping cars.

511 goods wagons (covered) and 1969 goods wagons (open).

Telegraph Stations: 27.

Telephone Stations: 211.

Bridges: 875 iron bridges of a total length of 16,309·56 metres (including the Yellow River bridge of 103 spans of 30 metres).

1285 stone bridges and culverts of a total length of 1544·22 metres.

28 iron and stone bridges of total length of 201·9 metres.

5 wood bridges of total length of 52·5 metres; a grand total of 2193 bridges and culverts of a total length of 18,108·18 metres.

Tunnels: Two tunnels, one through rock (340 metres) and one through earth (323·52 metres).

Number of passengers carried in 1910: 2,180,628.

Receipts from passengers: $3,688,131·45.

Receipts from freight: $8,295,723·66. (The amount of freight being stated in piculs, wagons and tons, it is impossible to arrive at a precise estimate of the number of tons carried, but it is believed to be about 2,550,166 tons.)

Profit and loss: The Profit and Loss Account of the railway for 1910 is stated as follows:—

Receipts.	
Receipts from railway	$12,134,476·16
Interest on deposits	106,192·98
Receipts from sales	19,217·71
Sundry income	156,012.77
Fines, etc.	2,188·51
Total receipts	$12,418,088·13
Expenditure.	
General expenditure	$3,709,030·34
Government freight	238,946·05
Repairs to railway	959,477·69
Interest on capital of Peking-Paotingfu Railway	394,922·42
Interest upon various bonds and liabilities	2,961,377·63
Allowances	67,200·00
Rentals	9,000·00
Total	$8,339,924·13
Grand profit	$4 078,164·00

From the profits the following deductions were made :—

Bonus, $136,661·45. To reserve, $470,177.81, leaving a net profit of $3,471,324·74.

TIENTSIN-PUKOW (CHING-PU) RAILWAY (NORTHERN (GERMAN) SECTION)

Construction begun: July 1, 1908. *Completed (formally)*: March 31, 1913.

Capital: £5,040,000 plus a temporary loan of £912,272.

Source of Capital: Germany.

Cost of construction: Taels 37,038,427.

Mileage (total), 453·15 miles. Main line: 390·48 miles. Branches: 62·67 miles.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in. *Ruling Gradient*, 1 : 150. *Ruling Curves*, 1000 metres.

Engineer-in-Chief: J. Dorpmüller, Kgl. Pr. Baurat (German), and in charge of original construction.

Opened to traffic: Chentangchwang to Tehchow, April 11, 1910. Chentangchwang to Tsinanfu, September 30, 1910. Tientsin West to Tsinanfu, December 14, 1910. Tientsin Central to Tsinanfu, December 21, 1910. Tientsin Central to Nanyi, June 2, 1911. Tientsin Central to Yenchowfu, August 30, 1911. Tientsin Central to Hanchuang, February 5, 1912. Tientsin Central to Pukow, June 21, 1912.

Junctions with other systems at: Tientsin Central, with Peking-Mukden Railway; Tsinanfu, with Shantung Railway; Hanchuang, with Southern section (British) of Tientsin-Pukow Railway.

Branches: Chentangchwang to Liangwangchwang (16 miles); Lincheng to Tsaochwang (19 miles); Yenchowfu to Tsiningchow (19½ miles); Lokou to Huangtaichiao (5½ miles); Tuliu-Pauto-Techow-Grand Canal (2½ miles).

Head Office: Hopei, Tientsin.

The receipts for the whole railway for the second half of 1914 are given as $2,750,000, and the expenditure as $4,434,701. The deficit in 1913 was returned at $1,965,000.

Provisional return for 1915: Receipts, $8,298,000; expenditure, $11,051,000.

Dimensions of principal bridges: Peiho bridge, 565 ft.; Tsauhwangho bridge, 833 ft.; Tsihaiho, 638 ft.; Shaho I, 985 ft.; Shaho II, 703 ft.; Panho, 869 ft.; Tawönnho, 2653 ft.; Tseho, 960 ft.; Peishaho, 851 ft.; Yellow River bridge, 4114 ft. (nine spans of 91·5 metres, two of 128 metres, and one of 164 metres) opened in November, 1912.

Weight of rails: 82 lb. per yard on main track; 65 lb. on branch lines, sidings, etc.

Best through run: Tehchow to Tsinanfu, 72 miles in 2h. 51m.

Locomotives: Ten 3–3 coupled shunters, weight in running order, 42 tons; twenty 3–4 goods locos., weight, 106·4 tons; twenty 3–5 passenger locos., weight, 117 tons. All of German manufacture.

Rolling Stock: 4 drawing-room cars; 4 first class coupé cars; 9 first and second class composite cars; 16 second class cars; 92 third class cars—a total of 125 passenger cars.

1 saloon car; 1 inspection car; 8 luggage etc. vans; 3 heater vans; 4 breakdown vans; 6 crane cars; 1 standard weight car; 6 kitchen cars—a total of 30 service cars.

60 ballast cars, 15 tons; 12 ballast cars, 20 tons; 100 ballast cars, 30 tons; 110 H.S. goods cars, 20 tons; 10 H.S. goods cars, 24 tons; 190 H.S. goods cars, 30 tons; 47 covered goods cars, 15 tons; 47 covered goods cars, 20 tons; 50 covered goods cars, 30 tons; 10 timber cars and 12 oil tank cars—a total of 648 goods cars.

TIENTSIN-PUKOW (CHINGPU) RAILWAY (SOUTHERN (BRITISH) SECTION)

Construction begun: February, 1909.

Capital (with Northern Section): Anglo-German loans of £9,800,000.

Cost of construction (line not yet completed).

Mileage (main line), 236½.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: T. W. T. Tuckey, Esq. (British).

Opened to traffic: June 21, 1912.

Junctions with other Systems: At Hanchuang, with Northern Section; and to be connected at Pukow (by Ferry) with Shanghai-Nanking Railway.

Head Office, Nanking.

Receipts for 1912: $1,451,798·63, made up as follows—from passengers, first half-year, $192,872·34; second half-year, $378,291·73; from freight, first half-year, $158,640·36; second half-year, $721,994·20. The increase in the second half-year was due to the junction of the northern and southern sections and the restoration of peace and order along the line.

Locomotives: (1912) 2 tank locos. (Baldwin Loco. Co.); 4 Mogul tender engines, second hand (North Brit. Loco. Co.); 12 tender engines, 2–6–0 type (N. B. Loco. Co.); 2 Baldwin locos., 2–6–0 type; 12 passenger locos., 4–6–0 type (Hawthorne, Leslie and Co.).

Rolling Stock: 4 first class dining cars; 3 saloon cars; 3 first class cars; 6 first and second class passenger cars; 6 second class passenger cars; 24 third class passenger cars; 8 third class and brake van composite; 8 brake vans; and 4 officers' cars—making 66 cars in all.

100 4-wheel tip wagons (construction); 20 30-ton flat bogies wagons, 60 30-ton ballast cars; 100 30-ton high-sided wagons; 100 30-ton low-sided wagons; 100 20-ton covered goods wagons—making 480 goods cars and wagons in all.

PEKING-SUIYUAN RAILWAY

Construction begun: October, 1905.

Capital Expenditure (upon Peking-Kalgan and Peking-Mentaokao lines): Tls. 7,496,873·62. This capital is derived from the surplus earnings of the Peking-Mukden Railway.

Mileage (total): 289 constructed; about 110 miles of extension, Fengchen to Suiyuan, not yet constructed. (Branch), 16½ miles.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in Charge of original Construction: Taotai Jeme Tien-yu (Chinese).

Present Engineer-in-Chief: Chen Si Lien.

Opened to traffic: to Kalgan in September, 1909; to Tienchen, June, 1911; to Changsui, April, 1912; to Tatungfu, April, 1915; to Fengchen, September, 1915.

Junction: With Peking-Mukden line at Fengtai.

Branches: Peking to Mentaokao (16½ miles) for coal mines; at Tatunghsien (under construction).

Head Office: Peking.

RETURNS.

	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Cost of Road and Equipment.
	$	$	$
1912	2,591,710	—	17,064,297
1913	3,281,488	—	19,018,399
1914	3,490,778	3,114,000[1]	22,335,737
1915	3,613,493	2,052,700	25,557,600
1916	3,895,779	2,317,138	25,981,204
1917	3,716,155	—	26,334,987

[1] Including redemption of two short loans.

No. of passengers carried (1916): 911,088.

Amount of freight „ „ 1,830,422 metric tons.

Locomotives: 51 (Tender), 15 (Tank).

Coaching Vehicles: 56 passenger and 23 brake and luggage vans.

Goods Vehicles: 867.

Dimensions of principal bridges: Tatung, 18 spans of 100 ft.; Peshachen, 16 spans of 100 ft.; Mentaokao, 8 of 100 ft.; Huailai, 7 of 100 ft.; Kalgan and Chaikoupu, 5 spans each, of 100 ft.

The journey from Fengtai to Fengchen (266 miles) occupies 13½ hours.

Remarks: An extension of this line from its present terminus at Fengchen to Suiyuanch'eng, in North-west Shansi, via Kueihuating, is projected, and will be proceeded with as funds permit. It is hoped eventually to extend the line to Urga, and possibly to connect still further north with the Trans-Siberian Railway.

Owing to the steep gradients and small curves in the vicinity of the Nankou Pass all trains passing this point have to be taken over this portion of the line in two sections, Mallet engines being used for passenger trains, and American-geared Shay locomotives for goods trains. Mogul engines are used on the rest of the line. There are four tunnels upon the Nankou Pass section, one of which is 3580 feet in length.

KIRIN-CHANGCHUN (CHI-CHANG) RAILWAY

Construction begun: February, 1910; completed, October, 1912.

Capital: Yen 2,150,000 (Japanese Loan), and a loan of Tls. 240,000 from the Official Bank of Kirin for the completion of the line.

Cost of Construction (estimated): Yen 2,500,000.

Mileage: 80.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Mr. K. L. Sung (Chinese).

Opened to traffic: From Changchun to Coran in January, 1911, and to Kirin in October, 1912.

Junctions with other systems at: Changchun, with South Manchuria and Chinese Eastern Railways; Kirin, with projected railway to Hunchun to connect with Korean system from Chongjin.

Receipts for second half of 1914: $351,800; expenditure, $353,700.

Provisional returns for 1915: Receipts, $970,912; expenditure, $1,447,999.

An agreement was signed on March 2, 1916, between China and Japan providing for Japanese control of the line.

CANTON-HANKOW (YUEH-HAN) RAILWAY

1. *Kuangtung Section.*

This section, about 209 miles in length, is being built by the Kuangtung Mercantile Administration of the Yueh-Han Railway, a Chinese company with a nominal capital of Canton $40,000,000, of which only a portion has been paid up.

Construction begun: By an American syndicate (which abandoned the enterprise on receiving compensation amounting to $6,700,000 gold) in January, 1904.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Mileage (main line), 209 miles; branch, 32 miles.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Mr. Jeme Tien-yu (Chinese).

Opened to traffic: Canton to Shiuchow (140 miles).

Junction with other systems at: Canton, by loop-line yet to be constructed, with the Canton-Kowloon Railway. Several projected railways, if constructed, will connect with this railway at various points.

Branch: Canton-Samshui (32 miles) built by American engineers, and opened to traffic in 1904. This line in 1912 earned a net profit (including revenue from freight) of $631,508. Returns for 1914: Receipts, $930,000; expenditure, $480,000.

Provisional returns for 1915: Receipts, $851,568; expenditure, $579,067.

In 1914 owing to floods (June) traffic between Fatshan and Samshui was suspended for more than a month. Passengers carried for 1914, 474,500

Head Office: Canton.

Remarks: At Yingtak, 90 miles from Canton, there is a bridge consisting of three 200 ft. spans, one 60 ft.; one 50 ft. and one 45 ft. There is another bridge 750 ft. in length at the 150th mile, and a tunnel about 1000 ft. in length at mile 160. The route at the northern end has been surveyed to the boundary of Hunan. Through this section of the line it will be necessary to construct some 60 tunnels, aggregating 10,000 ft. in length. It is estimated that the construction of the section between mile 140 and mile 209 will cost upwards of $9,000,000, and that the total cost of the Kuangtung section will exceed $16,000,000.

2. *Hupeh-Hunan Section.*

Capital: The Hukuang Railway Loan (see *Szechuan-Hankow Railway*).

Mileage (main line), about 490; branch, 65 miles.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in Charge of Construction: Mr. A. H. Collinson, M.Inst. C.E. (British).

Junction with other systems: At Wuchang (northern terminus), by bridge, tunnel, or ferry, with Peking-Hankow Railway.

Branch: Chuchow-Pinghsiang (65 miles), built by American engineers, and opened in 1902. This branch connects the Pinghsiang collieries (q.v.) with the Siang River at Chuchow. The freight wagons are reported to be of good quality, but the line is kept in an indifferent state of repair.

Remarks: Under the Hukuang Railways Loan Agreement (for £6,000,000 sterling) it was provided that the Engineer-in-Chief of the Hupeh-Hunan Section should be British.

Work on the Hupeh-Hunan Section was resumed in December, 1912, and surveys from Wuchang to Yochow (160 miles) have been completed. Surveys are now in progress from Yochow to Changsha, Lukow to Hengchowfu, and Hengchowfu to Yichanghsien on the Kuangtung border.

The Changsha-Chuchow section (33 miles) was built by Chinese, and has been in operation since September, 1911. The bridges, which were previously temporary trestle bridges, were completed in 1912. The rolling stock is bad, and the road bed is said to be poorly constructed. The cost of these 33 miles and of the small supply of rolling stock amounted (to the end of September, 1912) to close on Tls. 6,500,000. A further section from Chuchow to Lukow (about 10 miles) was begun in September, 1912, and towards the middle of December about nine-tenths of the earthwork and one half of the bridge and culvert work were reported to be completed. The shareholders have acquiesced in the policy of nationalization, but demanded reimbursement in full of the extravagant expenditure upon this short section of completed line. It was announced in March, 1913, that the line had been taken over by the Government.

FUKIEN (CHANG-HSIA) RAILWAY; CHANGCHOUFU-AMOY

Construction begun: July, 1908.

Capital: $2,643,031, raised by Fukien gentry and merchants.

Cost of Construction (to October, 1912): Tls. 1,320,295.

Mileage (total): 33, of which 17½ have been completed.

Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineers: Chen Yi-tang and Wang Ku-yu (Fukienese).

Present Engineer-in-Chief: Z. C. Wong

Line opened to traffic: To Kiangtong, in May, 1910.

Head Office: Amoy.

Receipts for 1917: $51,122.

Working expenses for 1917, $82,216.

Number of passengers carried (1917), 210,199.

Amount of freight carried, 2481 tons.

Remarks: In the autumn of 1905 the Fukienese elected Mr. Chen Pao-chen as director to organize a Fukien Railway. The projected route was surveyed in 1906. In the same year the provincial taxes upon salt and grain were given as security for interest upon the shares of the Merchants' Fukien Railway Company, and Cheng Ching-ping was appointed chief engineer. Mr. Chen Pao-chen then paid a visit to the Straits, in the course of which he obtained subscriptions amounting to more than $1,000,000 for the construction of the railway. Work was begun in 1908. In 1909, all the available funds being spent, a sum of $500,000 was borrowed from the Bank of Communications. Opened to traffic from Amoy (Sungsu) to Kiangting Bridge (17½ miles) in May, 1910.

Taken over by Ministry of Communications, April 1, 1914, for purposes of management; but line will not become state property until it can be bought outright.

TAOKOW-CHINGHUA (TAO-CHING) RAILWAY

Construction begun, 1900 and renewed in 1902.

Capital, Tls. 1,203,968, advanced by the Yuchuanpu, and £800,000 loan from the Peking syndicate. Source, British.

Cost of construction, £614,600. Mileage (total), 95.

Mileage (main line), 93·21 miles; branch, 1·52 miles.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer of original construction, T. J. Bourne; engineer-in-charge, E. C. A. Dunn. General manager, J. Barber.

Opened to traffic, July 25, 1904.

Junction at Taching, with Peking-Hankow Railway.

Extension contemplated to Huaichingfu, 14 miles.

Branch, Fawangchen-Jameisen, 7 miles.

Head Office, Chiaotso, Honan.

Total operating revenue (1917), $936,263. Total operating expenses, $385,798.

Number of passengers carried (1917), 216,495; amount of freight, 834,928 tons.

Receipts: From passengers, $130,069; from freight, $782,529.

Locomotives: One saddle tank 0–6–0, cylinder 12 in. diameter × 18 in. stroke. Wheel base, 10 ft. 9 in.

Two side-tank 0–6–0, cylinder 16 in. diameter × 22 in. stroke. Wheel base, 12 ft. 6 in.

Six 2–6–0 coupled bogied tender engines; cylinders 18 in. diameter × 24 in. stroke. Wheel base: rigid 14 ft.; total 22 ft.

One tender, 4–4–2. Weight, 120 tons.

Rolling Stock: 2 first class; 2 second class; 2 first and second composite; 4 brake vans; 5 pony wagons; 2 third class brake vans composite; 9 third class and 1 inspection car; 130 high-sided coal trucks (30 tons); 18 high-sided coal trucks (12 tons); 3 flat wagons (30 tons); and 8 low-sided trucks (30 tons); 16 others, wheeled bogies.

Bridges and Culverts: There are 177 bridges and culverts, of a total length of 3197·5 ft., or 34·2 ft. per mile. None of the bridges are of greater span than 30 ft. Many of the culverts have 3 or 4 ft. openings in case of floods.

The journey between Taokow and Chinghua occupies six hours.

SHANGHAI-NANKING (HU-NING) RAILWAY

Construction begun on main line in 1904.

Capital loan, £2,900,000. Source, British and Chinese Corporation Loan, and Chinese Government advances amounting at the end of 1912 to £308,117.

Cost of construction, Tls. 18,718,690 (including Woosing. Branch). Mileage (total), 203.

Mileage (main line), 193, of which 54 miles (Shanghai-Soochow) are double track. Branch lines, 10.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Opened to traffic to Wusieh (80 m.), July 18, 1906; last section, Chinkiang to Nanking, in April, 1908.

Branch: Shanghai to Woosung (10 miles), opened in 1898; and junction at Nanking with the Nanking City Railway (opened in August, 1908), 7½ miles, and by ferry with the Tientsin-Pukow Railway.

Head Office, Shanghai.

Financial results:

	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
	$	$	$	$	$
1. Operating revenues .	3,027,356	3,197,337	3,418,058	3.818,270	4,179,809
2. ,, expenses .	1,877,330	1,986,460	2,023,654	1,904,016	2,203,246
3. Percentage . .	62·01	62·13	54·17	46·07	49·25
Including depreciation charges . .	—	—	59·20	49·87	52·71
4. Net revenue . .	1,150,026	1,210,877	1,394,404	1,914,254	1,976,563
5. Interest on Loan—					
In £ sterling . .	145,362½	154,385	154,385	154,385	154,385
Rate per £ in $.	10·05	11·70	11·67	8·54	7·24
In Mexican $ . .	1,460,817	1,806,178	1,801,593	1,318,358	1,117,719
6. Percentage of 4 on Mortgage Bonds .	3·94	3 36	3·88	3·75	8·95

Locomotives, 1917 :

Number.	Tender or Tank.	Distribution of Wheels.	Gross Weight (in Tons).	Maker.
2	Tank .	4–6–2	74·35	North British Loco. Co.
10	Tender .	4–6–0	102·55	,, ,,
4	,, .	4–4–2	109·30	,, ,,
12	,, .	4–4–0	98·35	Robert Stephenson and Co.
4	,, .	4–2–2	98·70	Kerr, Stuart and Co.
2	Tank .	0–6–0	32·5	W. G. Bagnall, Ltd.
3	,, .	2–4–2	50·7	Brooks Locomotive Works

One 8-ton travelling crane ; one 5-ton travelling crane.

Rolling Stock: 17 saloon and first class cars ; 10 first and second class composite cars ; 1 first, second, third class, and brake composite car ; 3 second class lavatory cars ; 50 third class cars ; 19 coolie class cars ; 1 luggage and treasure van ; 6 brake and mail vans.

304 covered goods cars ; 56 medium-sided wagons ; 36 small-sided wagons ; 22 cattle wagons ; 2 horse boxes ; 3 flat wagons ; 1 kerosene tank wagon ; 2 cylindrical oil tanks ; 10 steel bogie brake vans ; 4 market wagons ; 3 breakdown wagons.

Bridges: 303 bridges have been constructed between Shanghai and Nanking, having a total waterway of 5857 lineal feet. At Hsinyongkong there is a double-line bridge of four through girder spans of 40 ft., with two 20 ft. arches at either side. Near Quinsan (on the Grand Canal) and at Sinfeng there are two bridges of three through girder spans of 60 ft.

Tunnel: The only tunnel is that through Fort Hill, near Chinkiang. It is 1327 feet from face to face. The tunnel was constructed for a double track at a cost of approximately $370,000.

NANKING CITY RAILWAY

Construction begun: December, 1907.
Capital: Tls. 500,000 (Kiangsu Government funds).
Cost of construction: About Tls. 490,000.
Mileage: (Main line), 7 miles ; (branch), 1½ miles.
Gauge: 4 ft. 8½ in.
Engineers in charge of original construction: Messrs. A. H. Collinson and A. H. Leeme (British).

This railway was built for the purpose of connecting the terminus of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway on the Yangtze with Nanking City, and was constructed entirely from Provincial resources by a former Viceroy Tuan Fang.

CANTON-KOWLOON (KUANG-CHIU) RAILWAY

Construction begun: (1) British section, 1906; (2) Chinese section, June, 1908.

Capital: (1) Advanced by the Government of Hongkong. (2) £1,500,000 (loan). Source, British and Chinese Corporation.

Cost of construction: (1) $13,284,425 (to December 31, 1912). Mileage (total), 22, main line; 8 sidings. (2) $12,594,227; mileage, 89½.

Mileage (main line), 112.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineers in charge of construction: (1) G. W. Eves, 1906–9; E. S. Lindsey, 1909–11; (2) Frank Grove, M.I.C.E. (British).

Opened to traffic: (1) October 1, 1910; (2) October, 1911.

Junction at Canton, with Canton-Hankow Railway (projected).

The loop line round the city of Canton, to link up this railway with the Canton-Hankow Railway, is not yet completed.

Head Offices: (1) Kowloon, Hongkong; (2) Taishatou, Canton.

Chinese Section :—

Receipts (1917), $950,000; expenditure, $1,615,000; number of passengers carried, 2,000,000; amount of freight, 85,000 tons.

Locomotives: 7, tender, 2–6–0 (104 tons); 2, tank, 0–6–0 (36 tons); 1 tank, 0–4–0 (12 tons); 1 5-ton crane.

One, tank, 0–4–0 (12 tons), for construction purposes only.

Rolling Stock: 1 saloon car; 3 first class cars; 4 first and second class composite cars; 2 second and third class cars; 17 third class cars; 3 third, luggage, mail, and brake; 5 third, luggage, and brake; 2 kitchen and third class cars.

39 covered goods wagons; 12 steel 30-ton wagons converted for passenger service; 2 steel brake and goods vans; 2 breakdown wagons, bogie; 1 breakdown wagon, 4-wheeled, flat; 1 steel locomotive department coal wagon; 8 steel low-sided wagons; 4 cattle wagons, 10 low-sided bogie wagons; 3 steel bogie flat wagons; 2 steel brake vans.

Bridges: The dimensions of the principal bridges are as follows: Sientsun River, 5 spans, 60 ft. skew; Shekha River, 3 spans, 60 ft.; Shektan River, 3 spans, 100 ft.; 2 spans, 60 ft.; Pek-kong, 4 spans, 60 ft.; Kansui, 3 spans, 100 ft.; Sheklung, East, 3 spans, 224 ft.; 2 spans, 60 ft.; Tungkun, 4 spans, 244 ft.; 2 spans, 60 ft.

Remarks: The journey between Canton and Kowloon (112 miles) takes 3 h. 39 m.

British Section :—

Financial Results:

	Gross Receipts.	Working Expenses.	Net Earnings.
	$	$	$
1912	241,649	207,350	34,298
1913	333,633	245,808	87,824
1914	364,608	274,366	90,241
1915	343,769	297,265	46,503
1916	366,215	296,691	69,524
1917	428,246	337,431	90,814

Construction Account:

Expenditure (Main line) to Dec. 31, 1916 . . .	$14,710,917
Special „ „ „ during 1917	101,460
Expenditure (Branch line) to Dec. 31, 1917 . .	89,808
	$14,902,185

At the end of 1916 it was decided to close the capital account and in future to charge all expenses other than revenue to the head of Special Expenditure.

Railway is a single line with 5 tunnels (150, 7212, 329, 170, and 923 ft. respectively). All tunnels, except No. 2, built for double track.

Bridges: 50, all built for double track.

Branches: 2 ft. gauge from Fanling to Shatoukok, 7¼ miles.

Locomotives: 10; 8 of 89¾ tons, 2 of 29 tons, 2 narrow gauge, of 4½ tons.

Coaching Vehicles: 4 first class; 4 first and second class; 2 second class; 14 third class; 4 third class and brake; 2 bogie brake vans.

Goods Vehicles: 31 covered, 15 open, 2 cattle trucks, 2 brake vans; also 6 narrow gauge construction vehicles.

The journey from Kowloon to Sumchun (22¼) miles) occupies 40 minutes.

Manager: H. P. Winslow.

KAIFENGFU-HONAN (PIENLO) RAILWAY

Construction begun, July 1, 1905.

Capital, $18,500,000 (Loans amounting to £1,640,000). Source, Franco-Belgian.

Cost of construction, $16,300,000. Mileage (total), 140.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Managing Engineer, M. Ebray (French).

Opened to traffic December, 1908.

Junction at Chenchow, with Peking-Hankow Railway.

Extension from Kaifengfu to Hsuchoufu (180 miles) completed June, 1915, and westward from Honanfu as far as Mienchih. Eventually to be extended to Sianfu.

Head Office, Chenchow, Honan.

Receipts for 1915 (provisional), $1,154,600.

Expenditure for 1915, $1,442,700 (approx.).

Locomotives, 15 (10 tender, compound; 5 Belgian State).

Coaching Vehicles: 1 first class; 9 first and second class; 16 third class; 5 baggage vans; 2 brake vans.

Goods Vehicles: 15 horse boxes; 48 20-ton covered wagons; 148 20-ton coal wagons; 89 20-ton ballast wagons; 2 breakdown wagons.

Bridges: The total number of bridges is 403, of which 20 are from 30 to 300 metres in length, and 168 are of iron and steel, and 235 are vaulted. On the Kaifeng-Hsuchoufu extension there are 89 steel bridges of a total length of 3315 metres and 5260 culverts measuring 740 metres, A steel girder bridge of nearly 1500 feet in length spans the Lo Ho.

Tunnels: The total number of tunnels is 11, and they vary in length from 50 to 500 metres.

Remarks: The contract for this railway was signed in 1904 at Shanghai, between H.E. Sheng Hsuan-huai, Director-General of Imperial Chinese Railways, and M. Armand Rouffart, representative of the Cie. Générale de Chemins de Fer et de Tramways en Chine.

SHANSI (CHENG-TAI) (TAIYUANFU TO SHIHCHIACHUANG) RAILWAY

Construction begun, 1904.

Capital, 40,000,000 francs (Russo-Chinese Bank Loan), and Tls. 6,106,000 advanced by the Yuchuanpu.

Cost of construction, $21,070,000. Mileage (total), 151.

Gauge, metre.

Engineer in charge of original construction, M. Espanet (French).

Opened to traffic, October, 1907.

Junctions with other systems at: Shihchiachuang, with the Peking-Hankow Railway.

Head Office, Société Française de Construction et d'Exploitation de Chemins de Fer en Chine, 9, Rue Chauchet, Paris; locally in China, at Shihchiachuang.

Receipts (approx.) for 1915, $2,116,549; expenditure (approx.), $2,021,336.

Number of locomotives, 51.

Other rolling stock, 44 passenger cars, 16 brake vans, and 496 goods wagons.

Principal bridge: Niangtzekuan, seven arches of 10 metres, and three arches of 50 metres.

Tunnels: 21, of which the longest measures 293 metres.

SZECHUAN-HANKOW (CHUAN-HAN) RAILWAY

(Kuangshui to Kueichowfu in Szechuan, via Ichang.)

Construction begun, Hupeh section, 1910. See remarks *infra.*

Capital, £6,000,000 (see *infra*). Source, Four Nations Group.

Mileage (total), about 460.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Junction with other systems, at Kuangshui, with the Peking-Hankow Railway.

Extensions from Ichang to Hankow, and Kueichowfu to Chengtu, are contemplated.

Remarks: This line was originally to have been constructed with Chinese capital, by Chinese engineers, and work was begun on the Ichang-Kueichow section. Construction was in progress to a distance of 80 miles from Ichang in December, 1910. In May, 1911, the Hukuang Railway Loan agreement was signed between the Chinese Government and the American, British, German and French groups, providing for a five per cent sinking fund gold loan of £6,000,000, of which £500,000 was to be used for the redemption at a premium of 2½ per cent of certain unredeemed Gold Bonds of the total par value of G$2,222,000 issued by the American China Development Company on behalf of the Chinese Government, and the balance for the construction (*a*) of a Government railway main line from Wuchang, through Yochow and Changsha, to a point in the district of Yichanghsien on the southern boundary of Hunan, connecting with the Kuangtung section of the Canton-Hankow Railway; and (*b*) of a Government railway main line from Kuangshui in Hupeh on the Peking-Hankow Railway, through Siangyang and Chingmenchow to Ichang, and thence to Kueichoufu in Szechuan, to be known as the "Hupeh Section" of the Szechuan-Hankow Railway. A German engineer was to superintend the construction of the Kuangshui-Ichang section, and an American engineer to have charge of the Ichang-Kueichow section. During 1915 owing to the European war work was abandoned on the American section In consequence survey work on the German section was also interrupted.

At the time of the signing of the loan the line had been under construction on the part of the Chinese for 1½ years, during which period a little over $3,000,000 is said to have been paid out by the Construction Department, while material, foreign and local, had been collected to the value of Tls. 1,200,000. Eight miles of line had been laid and construction trains were running for this distance. The embankment and bridges for a further 25 miles had been finished.

Owing to circumstances which were unforeseen when the agreement for the Hukuang Railways was entered into, a modification in the conditions became necessary, and in 1913 the Chinese Government and the representatives of the Quadruple Syndicate arranged that the loan funds should be deposited in the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank, Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, Banque de L'Indo-Chine, and the International Banking Corporation, instead of with the Chiaotung and Taching Banks. The property and materials of the railways were given as guarantee, to make up for any shortage in likin receipts, until such time as other suitable security might be forthcoming. China undertook of her own accord to engage experienced foreign accountants for the various railway sections.

II. Foreign Concessions

CHINESE EASTERN RAILWAY (TUNG-CHING)

(Manchouli to Suifenho, via Harbin, and Harbin to Kuanchengtze.)

Construction begun, 1897.
Capital, ———. Source, Russian.
Cost of construction, Rbls. 350,000,000. Mileage, main line 1073; branches, 202; total, 1,275.
Gauge, 5 ft.
Engineer in charge of construction, A. Turgovitch (Russian).
Chief of Railway, General Horvat.
Opened to traffic, July 1, 1903.

Junctions with other systems at: Kuanchengtze (Changchun), with South Manchuria Railway; Manchouli, with the Trans-Siberian line; Suifenho, with the continuation of the Trans-Siberian Railway to Vladivostok; Angangki, with Tsitsihar Light Railway.

The Manchouli (via Harbin) to Suifenho (Pogranitchnaia) section forms the Manchurian section of the Trans-Siberian Railway.

Branches: Harbin to Kuanchengtze; Harbin to Harbin-Pristan; Kuanchengtze to Changchun.

Head Office, Petrograd; local administration at Harbin.

Established in virtue of an agreement between the Chinese Government and the Russo-Chinese Bank, August 29, 1896. Construction work begun in the spring of 1897. Provision for the connection with Port Arthur and Dalny (Tairen) made in 1898. Line opened, 1901. The southern portion of this railway from Kuanchengtze to Tairen (Dalny), with branches, was handed over to the Japanese after the Russo-Japanese War (see South Manchuria Railway).

The following returns are published:—

		1908.	1909.	1910.	1912.
Receipts	Roubles	14,941,556	15,536,309	17,524,135	22,000,000
Expenditure	,,	18,403,787	16,251,270	15,905,520	30,000,000

The number of passengers carried in 1912, 1,660,533; freight, 3,390,773 tons. Revenue: 1912, Passengers, Rbls., 4,322,247; freight, 15,427,346.

SOUTH MANCHURIA [(NANMAN) CHANGCHUN TO DAIREN (DALNY)] RAILWAY

Construction begun (see Chinese Eastern Railway).

Capital: Authorized, Y.200,000,000; subscribed, Y.120,000,000. Source: Japanese Government owns Y.100,000,000 of capital; Y.20,000,000 issued to public subscription (Japanese and Chinese subjects only), of which Y.16,000,000 paid up.

Cost of construction (excluding capital invested by the Chinese Eastern Railway): Railway only, Y.70,299,780. Mileage (total), 697. Main line, 439. Branch lines, 258.

Gauge on all lines now 4 ft. 8½ in. Reconstruction of Antung-Mukden section completed, Nov. 3, 1911. Opened to traffic as South Manchuria Railway on April 1, 1907.

Junctions with other systems at: Mukden and Newchwang, with Chinese Government Railways (Peking-Mukden line); Changchun (Kuanchengtze), with Chinese Eastern Railway, and Kirin-Changchun Railway; Antung, with Korean Railways.

On August 1, 1917, an agreement was signed, placing the 1000 miles of railways in Korea under the management of the South Manchuria Railway.

Branches: Choushuitze to Port Arthur (28½ miles), Tashikiao to Newchwang (13½ miles), Suchiatun to Fushun Collieries (39 miles), Mukden to Antung (189 miles), Liushutun line (3½ miles), Yentai line (10 miles).

Head Office, Dairen (Dalny). Branch office, Tokio.

Number of passengers carried (1917), 4,410,816; amount of freight, 6,229,757 tons (American tonnage).

Receipts (1917) from passengers, Yen 6,040,453; from freight, Yen 19,882,475.

Locomotives: 69 double-ender tank engines; 4 American type (tender); 35 prairie switcher type (tender); 30 ten-wheeler type (tender); 10 Pacific type (tender); 114 consolidation type (tender); a total of 262 locomotives.

Cars and wagons: 2 private cars, 10 first class passenger cars; 26 first and second class composite cars; 7 first class and baggage comp. cars; 3 first class and dining comp. cars; 7 dining cars; 9 sleeping cars; 43 second class passenger cars; 69 third class passenger cars; 34 third class and baggage comp. cars; 25 mail and baggage comp. cars; 1335 box cars; 1320 gondola cars; 215 coal cars; 121 flat cars; 10 water-tank cars; 8 oil-tank cars; 137 caboose cars; 5 refrigerator cars; a total of 232 coaching and 3336 goods vehicles.

Principal bridges:—

Name of River.	Length of Bridge.
Hunho	2,606 ft.
Ching	2,262 ,,
Taitzu	1,467 ,,
Hsiungyohcheng	1,353 ,,
Tungliao	1,014 ,,
Mukden-Antung line—	
Taitzu River	1,792

Principal tunnels—Mukden-Antung line:—

	Length of Tunnel.
Fuching	4,884 ft.
Chikuanshan	3,254 ,,

Remarks: By the Treaty of Portsmouth between Russia and Japan the section of the Manchurian Railways south of Kuanchengtze was surrendered to Japan. The South Manchuria Railway Company was formed under an Imperial Ordinance of June 7, 1906, with a capital of £20,000,000, and on April 1, 1907, began to operate the railway. By June 1, 1908, the main line and branch lines (with the exception of the Mukden-Antung Railway) had been converted from narrow gauge to the standard gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in., which obtains throughout China. In May, 1915, an extension of the lease for 88 years was agreed upon by the Chinese Government.

Besides the railway, the Company manages many other important enterprises in Manchuria. It maintains regular steamship communication between Dairen and Shanghai in connection with the Trans-Siberian mail service, manages Dairen harbour, operates the Fushun collieries, supplies Dairen and several other towns with gas and electricity, has established hotels at its principal railway centres, manages and controls territory in the railway area (including the laying-out of new towns and the development of the agricultural, industrial, and commercial resources), and directs many other less important enterprises. The Company has issued Five per Cent. Debentures to the amount of £14,000,000 sterling upon the London market, both capital and interest being guaranteed by the Japanese Government. £2,000,000 have already become due and been repaid, and the bonds now outstanding are £6,000,000 at 4½ per cent and £6,000,000 at 5 per cent. The Company's capital expenditure up to March 31, 1913, was:—

	Yen.
Railway	70,299,781
Steamships	3,385,357
Electricity Plant	4,833,697
Gas Works	1,406,540
Harbour and Wharves	8,661,793
Workshops	5,915,122
Hotels	1,328,567
Buildings	9,699,523
Land Improvements	2,619,697
Land	8,404,815
Collieries	10,498,592
Total . . . . Yen	127,053,484

The Company's aggregate receipts for the year ended March 31, 1914, were Yen 42,417,123, and the expenditure Yen 35,249,844; for the year ending March 31, 1917: Receipts, Yen 52,402,408; expenditure, Yen 42,294,801.

SHANTUNG (TSINGTAO TO TSINANFU) RAILWAY

Construction begun, September, 1899.

Capital, 54,000,000 marks. Source, German.

Cost of original construction, 52,901,226 marks. Total to end of 1912, 58,031,968 marks.

Mileage (main line), 256; branch lines, 28 = 284 miles.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in. Engineer-in-chief, P. Hildebrand (German).

Opened to traffic, June, 1904. Re-opened after capture of Tsingtao, November 15, 1914, under Japanese control.

Junctions with other systems at: Tsinanfu, with the Tientsin-Pukow Railway.

Branch: Changtien to Poshan (28 miles).

Head Office, Tsingtao.

Receipts for year 1912, 9,292,466 marks.

Expenditure for year 1912, 2,464,629 marks.

Number of passengers carried, 1,230,043. Amount of freight, 852,001 tons.

No. of locomotives, 41.

Other rolling stock: 110 passenger cars, 1051 goods wagons.

Bridges: 1325, varying in length of single span from 1 to 46 metres. Longest bridge, 1541 feet.

Dividends: 6½ per cent in 1910; 6 per cent in 1911.

YUNNAN (TIEN-YUEH) (LAOKAI ON TONGKING FRONTIER TO YUNNANFU) RAILWAY

Construction begun, January, 1904.

Capital, 17,500,000 francs (Compagnie Française des Chemins de Fer de L'Indo Chine et du Yunnan).

Cost of construction, 165,000,000 francs.

Mileage (total), 533·77; in China, 288·94.

Gauge, 1 metre.

Engineers in charge of construction: M. Guibertt (1902–1908) (French); M. Dufour (1908–1910) (French).

Opened to traffic, April 1, 1910.

Junction at Hokeou with Laokay-Haiphong Railway.

Head Office, Hanoi, Tongking.

Receipts for 1912, 7,463,535 francs.

Expenditure for 1912, 5,388,744 francs.

Number of passengers carried, 2,444,319; amount of freight, 181,121 tons.

Receipts from passengers, 2,238,160 francs; from freight, 5,211,690 francs.

Locomotives: 20, tender, 4–4–0 (49 tons); 31, tender, 4–6–0 (59 tons). French make.

Coaching Vehicles: 1 saloon car, 1 private car, 24 first, second, third class composite bogie cars, 12 third class, 66 fourth class, 19 composite fourth class brake vans.

Goods Vehicles: 16 brake vans, 329 covered, 140 sided, 175 flat wagons —all 10 tons.

Bridges and Tunnels: All the principal ones are in French territory. The total number of bridges and culverts on the Chinese section is 3425, and the total length 16,728 ft. The total number of tunnels on the Chinese section is 158, and the total length 60,680 ft.

Remarks: The above figures (receipts, expenditure, and traffic) apply to the entire length of the line from Haiphong to Yunnanfu (859 kilometres) worked by the French Company. No distinct statistics are available in regard to the Chinese section of the railway from Hokeou to Yunnanfu.

The expenditure, besides working expenses, includes provision for the completion of unfinished works, new rolling stock, and renewal of railway material.

III. Provincial Railways

TSITSIHAR LIGHT (ANGANGKI) RAILWAY

Construction begun, September, 1907.

Capital, Tls. 284,758. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction, Tls. 241,283·48. Mileage (total), 17.

Gauge, metre.

Engineer in charge of construction, W. R. T. Tuckey (British).

Opened to traffic, September, 1909.

Junction with other systems at: Angangki, with the Chinese Eastern Railway.

Head Office, Tsitsihar.

TUNGKUAN-HONANFU (LOTUNG) RAILWAY

Construction begun, August, 1910.

Capital, Tls. 3,340,000. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction, ———. Mileage (total), 150.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Remarks: This is an extension westward of the Kaifengfu-Honan Railway. Line constructed to Mienchih, 50 miles from Honanfu, in 1915. Engineer in charge of construction, Chinese.

KIANGSI (NAN-HSUN) (KIUKIANG TO NANCHANG) RAILWAY

Construction begun, 1906.

Capital, Tls. 2,800,000. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction (estimated), Tls. 4,000,000. Mileage (total), 87.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in charge of construction, Mr. Okasaki (Japanese).

Opened to traffic from Kiukiang to Wanglaomen (20 miles) in December, 1910; to Mahuiling, another 5 miles, in April, 1911; to Teanhsien (35 miles) in 1913; and by the end of 1915 to within a mile of the river bank opposite Nanchang. Passengers transfer at Tukiapu until the bridge over the river is built.

Head office, Nanchang.

Remarks: The original scheme sanctioned by the Chinese Government in 1904 contemplates an ultimate extension from Nanchang to Shiuchow in Kuangtung, to connect with the Canton-Hankow Railway.

Two passenger trains daily each way between Kiukiang and Teanhsien; one train daily between Teanhsien and Tukiapu, and between the latter and Nanchang.

The line is under Japanese management. Two loans amounting to $10,000,000 at 7 per cent have been advanced by the Bank of Taiwan.

TAI-TSAO RAILWAY (SHANTUNG)

Also known as the Chung Hsing Coal Railway, connecting the coal mines 7 miles north of Yihsien with Taierhchwang on the Grand Canal. Capital, Chinese. Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in. One bridge, 60 metres, at Yihsien. Total length, 27 miles. Four stations at mines, Yihsien, Nikon, and Taierhchwang. All material supplied by German firms. Large coal yard and wharf on Grand Canal.

CHEKIANG-KIANGSU (HU-HANG-YUNG) (SHANGHAI-HANGCHOW-NINGPO) RAILWAY

Construction begun on Shanghai-Hangchow section in 1906.

Capital, $9,796,000. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction, ———. Mileage (total), 218.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in charge of construction, H. T. Foord (British).

Opened to traffic from Shanghai to Hangchow (118 miles) in August, 1909.

Junctions with other systems at: Shanghai, with the Shanghai-Nanking Railway by means of a connecting line opened December, 1916 (7½ miles).

Head office, Shanghai.

Provisional returns for 1915: Receipts, $2,070,000; expenses, $2,371,000.

Remarks: A loan agreement between the Chinese Government and the British and Chinese Corporation, for a Five per Cent Gold Loan of £1,500,000 for this railway, was signed in March, 1908; an Edict of September, 1905, however, had transferred the right of constructing this line to a provincial railway bureau, and two companies, one in Kiangsu and one in Chekiang, had been formed to carry out the work with Chinese capital. Provincial opposition to the introduction of foreign capital was so strong that the Government effected a compromise, by which the construction of the line was left in the hands of the provincial companies.

In 1914 the Kiangsu section, built by the Kiangsu Railway Provincial Company, was taken over as a Government railway and placed under the control of the directorate of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway. The Chekiang section was also taken over and construction work resumed on the Ningpo-Pokwan section, which was opened to traffic in 1915.

Swatow-Chaochoufu (Chao-shan) Railway

Construction begun, September, 1904.

Capital, $3,303,303. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction, $250,000. Mileage (total), 26½.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in charge of construction, Mr. Sato (Japanese).

Opened to traffic, November, 1906.

Head office, Swatow.

Receipts for year 1908, $204,537.

Expenditure for year 1908, $220,031.

Number of passengers carried, 672,879.

Receipts from passengers, $193,188. From freight, $11,073.

The Swatow-Changlin Light Railway with small cars to be pushed by coolies started operation over six miles of track on November 5, 1917. Fourteen miles remain to be constructed.

An American Consular Report states that the rails and rolling stock are of inferior quality, and will need to be replaced if the line be connected with any other system.

No returns received from the Railway Administration or the Ministry of Communications. Customs Reports state that the earnings since the railway opened in November, 1906, have been so poor that no dividends have been paid. This is due to the fact that passengers and cargo still prefer to travel by the slow but cheap boat lines. The average number of passengers per day of three trips in each direction is only 1100, and the average daily earnings do not exceed $350.

There is a project afoot to build a line between Chaochoufu and Canton, via Huichow, a distance of 240 miles, of which a rough preliminary survey has been made.

Sunning (Hsin-ning) Railway

(Kongmoon to Samkaphoi, via Kungyik and Sunning.)

Construction begun, 1906.

Capital, $3,306,120 and $1,000,000 borrowed from merchants. Source, Chinese.

Cost of construction, $4,300,000. Mileage (total), 63·7.

Gauge, 4 ft. 8½ in.

Engineer in charge of construction, Chin Yi-hsi (Chinese).

Opened to traffic from Kungyik to Taoshun (39 miles) in July, 1910.

The line was completed to Kongmoon in January, 1912.

Head Office, Sunning.

Receipts for year 1914, $700,000 (approx).

Number of passengers carried, 272,343.

A ferry vessel, 350 ft. long, and 55 ft. wide, able to carry 15 cars, has been purchased for ferrying trains over the South-West River at Niuwan.

With 6835 miles of railway in operation, China Proper has 0·3 miles of line to every 100 square miles of country, and, reckoning the population of China Proper at 327,000,000, 0·2 miles of line to every 10,000 inhabitants.

Railway Loans.--See Chap. XVI.

II. ROADS

There are said to be 2000 "Imperial" roads in China, and it is evident that at one time the Government of the country paid considerable attention to the question of communications. With the exception of the principal courier roads, however, the majority of these highways are narrow tracks or mere footpaths. Roads and tracks under the Manchu dynasty were allowed to fall into general and complete disrepair. Their upkeep was vested in the local officials, who rarely bestirred themselves until the road became impassable, when the necessary work was carried out at the expense of the inhabitants. Broad macadamized roads are now to be found in some of the principal towns, where land is available. In many provinces the attention of the authorities is now being directed to the advantages of roads. At Foochow 12 miles of macadam road were constructed a few years ago, and within a year 838 jinrickshas, 90 bicycles and 48 carriages were making use of the road. The Peking Municipal Council completed in 1916 a road to the Tongshan hot springs 25 miles north of the capital. With a view to providing relief for victims of the floods in Chihli the American Red Cross Society arranged in 1917 with the Chinese Government for the construction of a new road from Peking to Tungchow, 14 miles east of Peking, starting from the Chinhomen (gate). This work, it is expected, will ultimately cause the road between Peking and Tientsin to be modernized throughout its whole length.

The chief roads radiate from Peking, and in some places they are broad avenues planted with trees and occasionally paved. Signal towers were erected at regular distances, while inns, relay-stations and military posts marked the various stages.

Among the main national highways[1] in geographical sequence from the N.E. are :—

1. PEKING-Tungchou-Yungping-Shanhaikuan-MUKDEN.
2. PEKING-Jehol (144)-TSITSIHAR.
3. PEKING-Dolon-nor-KHAILAR.
4. PEKING-Kalgan (125)-Urga-Maimachin-KIAKHTA.
5. PEKING-Kalgan-Kueihuating-Uliassutai-KOBDO-Semipalatinsk.
6. PEKING-Taiyuanfu-Sianfu (770)-LANCHOW (1120)-Liangchou-Kanchou[2] - Suchou-(Gobi Desert) - Hami (2092) - Urumtsi - KASHGAR (3439) (or from Hami N.W. to Lake ZAISAN).
7. PEKING-Lanchow (as above)-Sining (159 miles from Lanchow)-Dangar - Kokonor - Nakchuka - LHASA - Gartok (800 miles from Lhasa).
8. PEKING-Taiyuanfu-Sianfu-CHENGTU (via W. Tsinling and Tiensh'a Pass)-Tatsienlu-Litang-Batang-LHASA.
9. PEKING-Chengtingfu - Kaifeng - Siangyang -Kingchoufu-Changtehfu-Kueiyang-YUNNANFU-Talifu-Tengyueh-Bhamo [from Yunnanfu to Mengtze and Hanoi, or to Szemao].
10. PEKING - Chengtingfu - Kaifeng - HANKOW - Yochow - Hengchoufu-KUEILIN.
11. PEKING-HANKOW-Hengchoufu-Canton.
12. PEKING - Tehchoufu - Hsuchoufu - Luchoufu (Anhui)-Kiukiang-NANCHANG-CANTON (*Ambassador's Road*).
13. PEKING - Tehchoufu - Tsinanfu - Chinkiang - HANGCHOW-Wenchow-Santuao-FOOCHOW.

Other important roads connect (1) the capital of Szechuan with Nanking, and (2) Hankow with the Russian frontier :—

1. CHENGTU - Wanhsien - Ichang - Hankow - Anking - (cross Yangtze)-Tatung-Wuhu-NANKING.

2. HANKOW-Anlu-Siangyang-SIANFU-Lanchow-Hami-Lake Zeisan (total distance, 2580 miles).

From Tsinanfu, the capital of Shantung, roads lead to Choutsun, Chefoo and Weihaiwei and to Weihsien and Tsingtao.

Alternative routes between Kalgan and Sianfu are (1) via Tatung and Taiyuanfu, and (2) via Sohping.

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[1] Figures in brackets represent miles from Peking.

[2] An alternative route to the capital of Kansu is Peking-Kalgan (125)-Kueihuating (325)-Paotou (425)-[across Yellow River and via Dabasun Nor (incorrectly marked on maps as Charamannai Nor)]-Shihtsuitze (630)-Ninghsia (690)-Lanchow (940).

III. WATERWAYS

Apart from the navigable rivers to which reference has already been made, China is well supplied with canals and minor waterways. The deltas of the Yangtze and West River contain the chief networks of the latter, and the Grand Canal is the most important artificial channel in the Empire. In the provinces of Chekiang and Kiangsu, in an area 175 miles by 160 miles, there are said to be 25,000 miles of canal.

The Grand Canal extends from Hangchow to Tientsin, traversing in its course the provinces of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Shangtung, and Chihli. Its total length is approximately 850 miles ; at Chinkiang, 280 miles from Hangchow, it enters the Yangtze, and starts again on the northern bank at Kuachou. It is generally accepted that the construction of the Grand Canal, the part between the Yangtze and the then channel of the Yellow River, was begun in the sixth century B.C. The southern section between Chinkiang and Hangchow was added between A.D. 605 and A.D. 617, while the northern section, from the old bed of the Yellow River to Tientsin, was constructed in three years (1280-1283 A.D.) by order of the Emperor Shitsu. In common with other public works in China the Grand Canal is in a state of neglect ; the upper section, with the exception of the part where the canal uses the channel of the Wei-ho, has suffered most, and navigation may be interrupted in parts for months at a time ; between Tsingkiangpu (the old bed of the Yellow River) and the Yangtze its condition is slightly better, while south of the Yangtze the canal still remains (except for one portion in winter) a navigable highway. Some 8050 boats, of an aggregate tonnage of 99,000 tons, use the Canal.

A National Conservancy Bureau was formed in December, 1913, under the presidency of Chang Chien, with a foreigner, Mr. H. van der Veen, as consulting engineer. Local bureaux have been established in some of the provinces to deal with irrigation and conservancy matters, those in Kiangsu and Anhui being charged with the survey of the Huai River and its flood districts. The river is now receiving special attention and was visited in 1914 by engineers of the American Red Cross. As a result of their investigations an agreement was entered into between the American International Corporation and the Chinese Government to carry out an improvement scheme under the Grand Canal Improvement Board. It is proposed that the Huai River should be diverted by the construction of a dam at the point where the river enters the Hungtseh Lake, and that a new canal should be made to carry the water to the Grand Canal. Owing to the Great War the scheme had to be postponed until the time was favourable for the raising of the necessary loan.

Other conservancy schemes in contemplation have to do with the Sikiang or West River, the Hangchow sea wall, and the dredging of West Lake, Chekiang.

IV. BRIDGES

The extension of China's railway system adds each year to the number of bridges that span her numerous rivers. Proposals have been made for the construction of a bridge over the Yangtze at Hankow to connect the Peking-Hankow line and the Hankow (i.e. Wuchang, south side of the river)-Canton Railway, and for another bridge over the Han River at Hanyang. Connection between the Tientsin-Pukow Railway and the Shanghai-Nanking line will be maintained for the present by means of a ferry between Pukow and Nanking.

Among the chief railway bridges are those over—

1. The Yellow River (Peking-Hankow Railway); 3378 yards. 103 spans of 30 metres.
2. The Yellow River (Tientsin-Pukow Railway); 1371 yards. Nine spans of 91·5 metres, two of 128 metres, and one of 164 metres. To be completed in 1912.
3. The Sungari and Nonni Rivers (Chinese Eastern Railway).
4. The Yalu River (South Manchuria Railway, connecting with Korean system at Antung); 3108 feet. Swing drawbridge on centre pier; six spans of 310 feet, six spans of 208 feet. Total cost, £220,000.
5. The Talingho (Imperial Railways of North China); 2600 feet. Twenty-six spans.
6. The Liukuho (Imperial Railways of North China); 2460 feet. Twenty-four spans of 100 feet and one of 60 feet.
7. The Liaho (Imperial Railways of North China); 2000 feet. Twenty spans of 100 feet.
8. The Huaiho (at Pengpu on the Tientsin-Pukow Railway); 1876 feet. Nine spans of 200 feet.

CHAPTER XIII

THE CHINESE POST OFFICE

THE following summary of the history of the Chinese Post Office is taken from the Annual Report for 1904:—

"Early in the 'sixties,' during the first few winters after foreign representatives took up their residence at Peking, the Legation and Customs mails were exchanged between Shanghai and Peking, under the auspices of the Tsung-li Yamen (Foreign Office), by means of the Government couriers employed for the transmission of official dispatches. It was then found convenient to arrange that the Customs should undertake the responsibility of making up and distributing these mails, a practice which, for the overland service during the winter months, involved the creation of Postal Departments at the Inspectorate and in the Custom Houses at Shanghai and Chinkiang, and similarly, for the transmission of mails by coast steamers during the open season, the opening of quasi-Postal Departments in the Tientsin and other coast port Custom Houses. At an early date it was seen that out of this simple beginning might be elaborated a system answering other and larger requirements, on the principle of a National Post Office. This idea gradually shaped into form, and had already so much ingratiated itself in the official mind that in 1876, when the Chefoo Convention was being negotiated, the Tsung-li Yamen authorized the Inspector-General to inform the British Minister, Sir Thomas Wade, that it was prepared to sanction the establishment of a National Postal System, and willing to make it a Treaty stipulation that postal establishments should be opened at once. Unfortunately, through, so to speak, a conspiracy of silence, the insertion of the postal clause was omitted in the official text of the Treaty, and thus the project was postponed *sine die*. Meanwhile, however, the experiment was persevered with and warmly encouraged by the Imperial Commissioner, Li Hung-chang, who promised to 'father' it officially as soon as it proved a success. Hence the more formal opening of Postal Departments at various Custom Houses, the 1878 experiment of trying a Native Post Office alongside the Customs Post, and the establishment of Customs couriers from Taku to Tientsin, from Tientsin to Peking, and the Customs winter mail service overland from Tientsin to Newchwang, from Tientsin to Chefoo, and from Tientsin to Chinkiang, as also the introduction of Customs postage stamps in 1878.

"The growing importance of the service thus quietly built up, and its convenience for regular communications with Peking, and between Treaty ports, were not only appreciated by the foreign public, but were also recognized by the foreign administrations having postal agencies in

China. In 1878 China was formally invited to join the Postal Union. In the same year, while on a visit to Paris, the Inspector-General was sounded by the French Minister for Foreign Affairs as to a possible way of withdrawing the French Post Office in Shanghai; and while, more than once, the British Postmaster-General at Hongkong expressed his readiness to close the Hongkong Post Office agencies along the coast, arrangements were actually discussed for the absorption by the Customs Department of the Municipal Post Office at Shanghai. But no definite response to these overtures could be given, or final steps taken, before the Chinese Government had declared its intention to undertake national responsibilities; and the Customs Department continued to satisfy only certain wants and prepare the system for further development until, twenty years after the Chefoo Convention, the Decree of March 20, 1896, appeared. This Decree created an Imperial Post for all China, to be modelled on Western lines, the organization and management of which were confided to Sir Robert Hart, who from that date acted in the double capacity of Inspector-General of Customs and Posts.

"This long hesitation on the part of the Chinese Government formally to recognize and foster an institution known to have worked with such profitable results in foreign countries, both from public and revenue standpoints, may be accounted for in part by the fact that from immemorial times the Chinese nation has possessed two postal institutions: one, the Ichan (or Imperial Government Courier Service), deeply rooted in official routine; the other, the native postal agencies (*min-chü*) long used and respected by the people. Both give employment to legions of couriers, and may be considered to some extent still necessary to the requirements of an immense nation; they could neither be suppressed, transformed, nor replaced at a stroke. The Imperial decision therefore only gave final sanction to a new and vast undertaking, but abolished nothing. The native postal agencies linger on, but the competition is telling upon them, and in process of time the Imperial Post Office will be in fact, as in name, the National Post Office."

ANNUAL REPORT

For the sixth year of Chung-Hua Min-Kuo (1917)

PART I.—General

"Plague, exceptional floods, famine, and civil war—such is the succession of catastrophes which have visited this country during the year under review. By one and all of these have postal operations been harassed." These words stand at the head of the Annual Report for 1911. With equal force and reason they may be taken to preface this. To those, however, who have followed the genesis and growth of this rapidly expanding Service the large measure of success attending its active operations during the past year, in spite of every manner of hampering restriction, may be regarded as the resultant of the aggregate of forces that have been co-operating within the living organism for the last 20 years.

The concrete results obtained, including an enhanced surplus ($1,422,000 in 1917, as against $937,000 in 1916), and the improvements foreshadowed in last year's Report, and now either fully effected or in course of being carried out, are dealt with in more detail below. They are extremely gratifying, as they constitute a kind of deferred dividend on the immense work of the staff in its persevering maintenance of the services, which have been carried on so consistently against great odds.

Administration.—Mr. T. Piry, Postmaster-General, who had been on leave of absence since May, 1915, having expressed a desire to retire, owing to his continued weak state of health, was permitted to do so on April 1, 1917, and appointed Honorary Adviser to the Chinese Postal Administration.

On August 7, 1917, His Excellency Yeh Kung-cho, the Vice-Minister of this Ministry, was appointed Director-General of Posts; and on the 17th of the same month Mr. H. Picard-Destelan, Acting Associate Director-General, was appointed Co-Director-General. A Deputy Director-General was at the same time appointed to assist in Postal affairs, Mr. Homer Wong being given this appointment.

Following the severance of diplomatic relations between China and Germany, which took place on March 16, 1917, war was declared against Germany and Austria-Hungary on August 14, 1917, by Presidential Proclamation and Mandate of the same date. German and Austrian subjects in the employ of the Chinese Postal Service—16 in all—were consequently notified that their connection with the Administration was severed forthwith.

STATISTICS OF MAIL MATTER AND PARCELS

(*a*) Mail Matter

Comparative Table showing Mail Matter posted.

Articles.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Ordinary	197,639,300	209,261,500	230,335,420	256,275,250
Registered	11,944,800	14,761,900	16,978,400	18,488,690
Express	2,516,392	2,753,195	3,082,544	3,585,320
Insured	14,805	25,333	35,909	32,140
Total	212,115,297	226,801,928	250,432,273	278,381,400

The total of 278 millions shows an increase of 28 millions on last year's figures, which, in turn, improved by 24 millions on the figures of the previous year. Of the total increase of 28 millions, ordinary articles account for 26 millions, and show an advance of 11 per cent; registers for 1½ millions, showing an advance of 9 per cent; and express articles for ½ million, an advance of 16 per cent. The latter figure is gratifying, since it indicates that the raising of the rate of postage on this category in 1916 has in no way retarded progress. Insured letters alone show a decline, but their total declared value rose from $1,680,753 to $2,125,685. Taking the various categories of mail matter separately, we find that letters contributed 15 millions, postcards 5½ millions, printed matter 6 millions, and other articles 1½ millions. If the unrest prevailing in certain provinces and the floods in others be considered, these results must appear very satisfactory.

The Town-Post System (articles posted for local delivery) shows steady development, the increase in articles posted for delivery within the delivery radius of the same town being 50 per cent in three years. Nevertheless, the system cannot yet be said to be much availed of outside the larger cities. The figures for the past four years are:—

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Articles posted for local delivery .	12,268,100	13,692,600	17,197,900	18,148,400

The extent to which the public has availed itself of the various subsidiary posting agencies in the larger cities is shown in the table below, the increase this year being 20 per cent.

Articles collected from Letter-boxes, Box Offices, and Pillar-boxes.

1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
35,674,100	41,972,700	46,419,400	55,739,000

Native Clubbed Mails—i.e. clubbed packages of letters posted by *min-chü* which are registered at the Post Office—rose slightly in number of packages, number of letters declared to be enclosed in the packages, and weight, as will be seen from the following table:—

Native Clubbed Mails Posted.

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Number of packages . .	145,933	155,496	155,417	161,464
Number of letters contained in above packages .	3,124,279	3,366,227	2,624,301	2,730,244
Weight: kilos . . .	16,085	18,258	20,808	21,388

The number of packages is the figure included among the articles posted in the General Table, since the number of letters declared to be contained therein cannot be verified by the Post Office. The unreliability of this declaration is evidenced by a comparison of the three sets of figures for 1914 and 1917 respectively. In 1917 the number of packages and their weight increased considerably, while the contents declared showed a decrease! Taking only the reliable figures of packages and weight into consideration, we may regard *min-chü* business through the Post Office as stationary on the whole, though it varies in different provinces. Smuggling undoubtedly continues on a scale more or less considerable.

(*b*) Parcels.

Table showing Parcels Posted.

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Number . .	1,662,326	2,033,323	2,232,100	2,640,355
Weight: kilos	6,253,651	7,904,129	8,484,200	10,006,321
Value: $.	22 425,181	27,187,277	29,282,300	34,893,500

Parcels.—Despite the unfavourable conditions which prevailed in certain provinces as a result of the floods and political unrest, the parcel traffic continued to hold its own, and even surpassed that of 1916 by 408,000 in number, 1½ million kilos in weight, and 5½ million dollars in value. Of the total weight of over 10 million kilos. posted in 1917, roughly 72,000 was transported via Shensi and Kansu to Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan) by the new parcel post service inaugurated experimentally in December, 1916. The need for this service, as evidenced by the public's appreciation, having thus been demonstrated, steps have been taken to place it on a permanent footing. It is unfortunate that, on account of the long distance to be traversed overland (from the railhead at Kwanyintang to Tihuafu, capital of Sinkiang, it is 6670 *li*), the temporary rate adopted for parcels to and from Sinkiang—quadruple domestic rate—involved the Post Office in a loss, for the overland carriage alone, of 17 cents on every kilo transported to Tihuafu, and more on parcels to places in Sinkiang beyond Tihuafu. This necessitates an increase in the tariff in the coming year.

The increase in the parcel traffic applies to all three classes of parcels —ordinary, insured, and trade charge (C.O.D.)—as will be seen from the following comparative table for 1916 and 1917, of the three classes posted :—

	ORDINARY.			INSURED.			TRADE CHARGE.		
	No.	Value.	Weight.	No.	Value.	Weight.	No.	Value.	Weight.
		$	Kilos.		$	Kilos.		$	Kilos.
1917 . .	2,488,700	27,338,000	9,139.500	139,030	7,458,000	848,400	12,625	97,500	18,421
1916 . .	2,110,200	22,940,300	7,676,700	111,200	6,258,000	792,200	10,700	84,000	15,300
INCREASE	378,500	4,397,700	1,462,800	27,830	1,200,000	56,200	1,925	13,500	3,121

The value of the parcel trade as indicated above, approximately $35,000,000, is the value declared by the senders, but it is doubtful whether this is even approximately correct. The domestic rule that parcels of a declared value of $30 or over must be insured and can be transmitted only between offices open to insurance, not infrequently leads senders to undervalue their parcels. To meet this, it has been decided to abolish the rule in 1918 and leave senders free to insure or not, as they may desire, and also to reduce the rate insurance from 1 per cent to ½ per cent.

Establishments.

The following comparative table for the last four years shows the growth in the number of Major Establishments—Post Offices and Postal Agencies.

Establishments.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Head offices	21	21	21	21
First class offices . . .	32	32	32	34
Second class offices . .	932	956	990	1,078
Third class offices . .	309	380	368	338
Sub-offices	189	198	205	212
Agencies	6,841	6,923	7,181	7,420
Total . . .	8,324	8,510	8,797	9,103

The increase of 306 major establishments is, on the whole, satisfactory. Urga and Weihaiwei were added to the list of first class offices. Second and third class offices together totalled 1416, as against 1,358, an increase of 58, but second class offices increased by 88, while third class offices decreased by 30. The raising in status of third class offices was necessitated by the increase of postal business due to the extension of the money order system, since third class offices do not handle money orders, and, in a few cases, for the better control of subordinate establishments. Sub-offices in the larger cities increased by seven, and postal agencies increased by 239, most of these being converted from rural box offices.

The parcel insurance system was extended to 197 additional offices, the number of offices handling insured parcels being 568 at the close of the year. Money order offices increased by 90, the number now functioning being 1,259. Offices giving express delivery service increased by 43 to 628, and insured letter facilities were extended to five new offices, the total of these being now 47.

The following is a comparative table showing the extension in minor establishments—town and rural box offices :—

Establishments.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Town box offices	2,523	2,271	2,254	2,342
Rural box offices and rural stations .	1,654	2,011	2,307	2,548

Town box offices increased by 88, a result which is due mainly to the opening of these in smaller towns where pillar-boxes have not yet been introduced. In the larger towns box offices are gradually being replaced by stamp sales agencies. These latter only sell stamps and do not handle mail matter ; close by them are placed pillar-boxes which are cleared by the regular post office collectors.

Rural box offices increased by 241. These are established in villages to test the postal requirements of the place : if the requirements are small the rural box office remains, but, as increased business warrants it, the rural box office is added to the list of postal agencies. Rural box offices are served by the regular couriers on established lines or by rural postmen making round trips through several villages at stated intervals. Rural stations are places at which there is no box office, but where the postman delivers and collects mails from house to house as he passes through.

Mail Lines.

Comparative Table of Mail Lines.—

	1914. *Li.*	1915. *Li.*	1916. *Li.*	1917. *Li.*
Courier lines . . .	408,000	410,000	421,000	432,000
Steamer and boat lines .	59,000	63,600	64,700	68,600
Railway lines . .	19,000	19,000	19,000	19,500
Total . .	486,000	492,600	504,700	520,100

1 mile = 3 *li.*

Courier Lines.—An increase of some 10,000 *li* of courier lines will be noticed. This increase is divided principally among Kuangtung, Manchuria, Chihli, and Anhui districts. The increased quantity of mail matter passing to Shensi, Kansu, and Sinkiang necessitated doubling the daily fast day-and-night courier service from the railhead of Kwanyintang to Sianfu and on to Lungchow (Shensi). Generally speaking, the year was not favourable to the throwing out of new courier lines; indeed, as will be seen from the brief district reports in Part II, district chiefs, as a result of military activities as well as brigandage, found it no little trouble to keep the old lines functioning. The couriers were molested both by soldiers and bandits, were robbed of their horses, taken prisoner, and in some cases were wounded or killed.

Steamer and Boat Lines.—The increase under the head of steamer and boat lines is mainly attributable to the extension of launch and native boat lines. The Ichang-Wanhsien-Chungking post-boat fleet did good service despite adverse conditions due to the fighting in that part of the Yangtze. Some 1,039,000 kilos of mails and parcels were transported by the post-boat fleet during the year, while 133,000 kilos were also carried by outside craft during the same period. During the latter part of the year post-boats could proceed over certain sections of the river only under strong military escorts. The thanks of the Administration are due to the commanders of certain American and British gunboats engaged on patrol duty on the Yangtze during the year for carrying the mails on several occasions between Ichang, Wanhsien and Chungking.

Railways.—The service is also under obligation to the Government railways for the generous manner in which they have always furnished the accommodation necessary for the mail services on their trains. Special compartments have been provided on all trains required and placed at the sole disposal of the mail services, and for the last few years these have been supplemented on the Kin-feng and Tsin-pu lines by the supplying of whole cars on the principal trains to serve as the bureaux ambulants so necessary not only for the domestic service but also as forming a connecting link with the Siberian mail route. In 1917 the Kin-han administration has also placed at the disposal of the Post Office up-to-date cars to be used as bureaux ambulants on the through trains between Peking and Hankow.

Early in the year arrangements were made with the Lung-hai-Pien-lo Railway, still under construction, for suitable mail accommodation on all trains between Süchowfu and Kwanyintang. Towards the end of the year the Sze-cheng Railway was completed between Supingkai, on the South Manchuria Railway and Liaoyüanchow, and the construction trains running over it were availed of for the carriage of mails. The Hankow-Yochow section of the Hankow-Canton Railway was also made use of for mails until the fighting in the neighbourhood interrupted the railway service.

Financial Results.

The following table shows the financial results for the past four years—

	Revenue.	Working Expenses (i.e. Capital Expenditure excluded).	Surplus.	Deficit.	Capital Expenditure,[1]
	$	$	$	$	$
1914 .	6,156,734.25	6,254,276.46	—	97,542.21	81,882.17
1915 .	6,798,580.28	6,495,987.76	302,592.52	—	63,876.80
1916 .	7,630,416.84	6,693,013.58	937,403.26	—	311,918.26 [2]
1917[3].	8,546,000.00	7,124,000.00	1,422,000.00[4]	—	606,000.00

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[1] i.e. expenditure for sites and *new* property generally (buildings, furniture, mail-vans, boats, bicycles, pillar-boxes, safes, etc.).

[2] Paid out of "Surplus."

[3] Figures for 1917 approximate.

[4] Actual surplus $1,538,000, but $116,000 applied to meet loss on working of Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan); part of this is refundable.

Last year the figures for "Working Expenses" and "Capital Expenditure" were combined in one total; the division now effected makes for clearness.

Revenue for 1917 shows an increase of 12 per cent over that for 1916, while expenditure shows an increase of 6½ per cent.

Both receipts and payments were adversely affected by the World War, and by floods, fighting, and brigandage in China, which not only resulted in a decreased sale of stamps for postage on mail matter, but in part suspension of the parcel trade, owing to some mail services being interrupted. While receipts were thus decreased, payments were abnormally augmented by the introduction of an increased scale of pay to certain lower employés, by the ever-increasing cost of supplies, and by the engagement of many extra couriers, etc., to ensure the transmission of mails by diverted routes, owing to the floods and disturbances having made the usual overland routes impassable and interrupted the Ichang-Chungking steamer service, as well as certain train services.

Further, the service incurred considerable loss during the year owing to currency complications. In parts of Chihli, for example, it was obliged in certain cases, owing to political conditions, to accept depreciated Government bank-notes at par; while in North Manchuria the violent fall of the rouble made it impossible for the service to avoid loss, particularly on roubles collected in the interior of the Heilungkiang section.

There were several cases of losses of cash and stamps during the year owing to looting, fire, and brigandage.

Indemnities for Losses of Mail Matter and Parcels.

Losses of mail matter and parcels were unusually numerous during the year. Apart from many cases of highway robbery, looting, and piracy, losses through shipwreck were exceptionally heavy. The Chinese steamers *Anping* and *Shaoshing* were wrecked in July, the Tsin-pu railway ferry *Feihung* in October, and the French steamer *Hongkong* in December. In the last-named wreck alone parcels insured for $26,000 were lost, and claims for indemnities to that extent are being met.

The domestic insurance fee covers all cases of loss, damage, or abstraction, except those due to a state of international war.

Revenue Stamps.

Sales for the year totalled $88,513.42, as against $87,250.22 for 1916.

Money Orders.

The following amounts were issued and cashed during the past four years:—

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
	$	$	$	$
Issued .	12,048,200	13,552,300	15,965,800	21,523,300
Cashed .	12,050,600	13,468,900	15,787,100	21,227,000

The average value of each money order issued in 1917 was $15.80, and the total value issued was 34.8 per cent in excess of that for 1916. This increase would have been greater had it not been for the fact that, owing to the difficulties experienced in the movement of funds consequent upon the disturbed state of affairs in those parts of the country, the issue of money orders on most of the principal offices in Szechuan and the issue of interprovincial money orders in the provinces of Shensi and Kansu had to be suspended for about two months. During the year a general reduction in rates on money orders was made, which, together with other improved facilities, have made the money order service more popular with and useful to the remitting public.

Money Orders Issued to Chinese Labour Corps.—An important feature of the year's operations was the utilising of the money order service by the recruiting authorities of the British and the French Government as the channel for payment of monthly allotments to families of many of the labourers who have gone abroad to serve in labour corps. While many money orders were so issued to these authorities in various places, the amount issued to the British Emigration Bureau at Weihaiwei alone totalled over $1,000,000 for the last nine months of the year. This amount, representing nearly 100,000 orders, not only formed the main support of some 25,000 families mostly residing in remote places in Chihli and Shantung not postally connected, but contributed materially to the economic advancement of those localities. These distant families were served by messengers specially employed by the Post Office for the purpose, opportunity being taken gradually to open postal establishments as far as possible.

The issue of money orders in Sinkiang (Chinese Turkestan) on other provinces in China was introduced during the year, but for the present, owing to the chaotic state of the currency in Sinkiang, other provinces in China do not issue money orders on that province.

Money Orders for Prisoners of War.—During the last three months of the year 38 money orders, representing $746.50, were issued free of charge, in accordance with Postal Union regulations, to the German and Austrian prisoners of war interned at Nanking (Kiangsu).

A provisional money order, with its fixed value in local currency printed on each order, is in use in Manchuria and in Sinkiang, having been first introduced in Manchuria in the latter part of 1916 with satisfactory results.

Trade Charge (C.O.D.) Parcels.

The trade charge parcel business made little headway during the year, the total sums collected and refunded being $86,600 and $87,000, as against $78,000 and $77,900 respectively for 1916. Owing to the general depression in trade on account of the European War and the internal strife in this country better results could not be expected. Shanghai is responsible for upwards of three-fourths of the total charge parcel business conducted by the service.

Relations with Foreign Administrations.

On March 15, 1917, China severed diplomatic relations with Germany and Austria-Hungary, and from that date the Chinese post offices ceased to have any dealings with the German postal agencies. However, closed mails from Germany which were en route on the date of severance of diplomatic relations were received and delivered to the German postal agencies up to April 25, 1917. These agencies are now closed.

Prisoners-of-War Mails.—The declaration of war by the United States of America upon Germany in April resulted in the closing of the American route to mails for Germany and her allies. Exception was made in the case of letters, postcards, prints, commercial papers, and samples for or from prisoners of war and interned belligerents. These are granted free transmission, but parcel post packages are excluded from this privilege.

Allied Soldiers' Correspondence.—The privilege of free delivery in China of unfranked articles of correspondence—letters and postcards only—emanating from soldiers of the Allied Powers at the various battle-fronts has been granted since the declaration of war by China on the Central Powers.

The interned German and Austrian soldiers and sailors in China continue to enjoy the privilege of free transmission of their correspondence, including money orders and parcels, in accordance with the Postal Union regulations.

Although the Trans-siberian mail service was maintained and availed of throughout the year, various delays and irregularities were experienced in the transmission of mails over that route. In May, 1917, this Administration notified the public that mail matter for Europe should have the route chosen indicated thereon. From that date only mail matter marked "via Siberia" was transmitted by the Trans-siberian Railway.

The calls made on shipping by the exigencies of war have hampered to a considerable extent the parcel service to Europe. In October the Hongkong Postal Administration notified this Administration that all parcels not obviously in the nature of gifts, addressed to any place west of Singapore, would be refused. About the same time the parcel post service to Aden (except in respect of parcels for military and naval addresses) was suspended at the request of the Postal Administration of India.

The British Government having placed an absolute embargo upon the importation into Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and Holland of all articles other than printed matter, this Administration was notified that in October that no parcels for the above countries, with the exception of parcels containing printed matter, would be accepted for transmission by British services until the raising of the embargo.

In November the Postal Administration of Hongkong gave notice of the suspension of parcel post services from Hongkong to Russia, Bagdad, British East Africa, and Egypt (except for members of the Allied Expeditionary forces), and to Abyssinia, Erithrea, French Somali Coast, Italian Somaliland, Portuguese East Africa, and Zanzibar.

In addition to the above-mentioned suspensions of services, many restrictions and prohibitions imposed by various belligerent countries upon the importation of goods into their respective territories by means of the parcel post have also contributed to affect seriously the parcel trade of this country.

Agreements —On March 1, 1917, an agreement for the direct exchange of postal parcels was concluded between this Administration and the Postal Administration of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The first despatch of parcel mails from London under the new agreement took place on May 8, 1917, and the first from Shanghai on May 13, 1917.

Arrangements were concluded with the Russian Postal Administration for a direct exchange of parcels at the Russo-Chinese frontiers. The Exchange Offices on the Chinese side are the following: Manchouli, Suifenho, Taheiho, and Suiyüanhsien. The corresponding Russian Offices of Exchange are respectively: Mandchouria, Pogranitchnaia, Blagovestchensk, and Khabarovsk. The direct exchange of parcels at the frontiers commenced on September 1, 1917.

An agreement for the exchange of money orders between China and the Postal Administration of Macao was signed in December, 1917. It will come into operation on January 1, 1918.

PART II

CHIHLI.—Notwithstanding the many impediments to postal progress—due to political upheaval, flood, and famine—the results, both statistical and financial, for the year under review are the highest yet recorded. Owing to shortage of rain the spring crops were a failure, causing a partial famine, with its attendant distress. From July to October the district suffered from floods, and at one time as much as 15,000 square miles of country were inundated to a depth of from two to ten feet, and hundreds of thousands were rendered homeless. Between the end of July and the end of October the Kin-han Railway suffered severely; many steel bridges were carried away and great stretches of the road-bed washed out, some 300 kilometres being affected through the same cause. The Tsin-pu line was also interrupted for two and a half months; but the Kin-fen line, whilst suffering some damage in July, did not give rise to much inconvenience. The hire of extra men and boats for the transport of mails over the flooded areas occasioned an additional expenditure to the district of some $13,000. In August the Chentow Second-class Office was entirely destroyed by the floods, and in September the Shuntehfu Second-class Office met with a similar fate. Otherwise, though many offices were flooded, no extensive damage was done. A serious result of the floods was the silting up of the Taku Bar, and from October 16 most of the steamers had to anchor about 13 miles from Tangku. For valuable assistance rendered with the mails the service is indebted to the China Merchants Steam Navigation Company and Messrs. Butterfield and Swire. In Tientsin much inconvenience was caused by the floods, which overran the city and Foreign Concessions: deliveries in many of the sections were maintained by means of boats. Inland, the couriers had to contend with great difficulties in crossing flooded areas, and, when boats were not available, had to swim across swift-running currents with the mails on their heads. Several had narrow escapes, but no lives were lost. One unfortunate courier, who lost his clothes but saved the mails, had to travel several *li* to the nearest village before he could obtain a few rags to cover himself.

SHANSI.—The year opened with improved conditions in Shansi proper and the K'ou-wai region, but these were not maintained. Revolting troops in the former and roving brigands in the latter area combined, by their lawlessness and depredations, to hamper postal operations. Besides pillaging and burning villages and hamlets, they twice looted Wanchüanhsien city, took Yunghohsien, and besieged Lintsinhsien and Ishihhsien. Couriers were attacked and mails lost, but postage stamps and official funds were in all cases saved. In one case the courier managed successfully to arrest his attacker and bring him to the magistrate. Mail services were seriously affected by the floods in Chihli, mails from other districts being on one occasion delayed for 20 days. Towards the end of the year preventive measures had to be enforced to meet the outbreak of pneumonic plague; the parcel service from the infected area was suspended and the fumigation of mails undertaken at various points. Beginning from June, martial law was declared in the provincial capital, and censorship of mail matter enforced throughout the province and at offices bordering the K'ou-wai section. The smuggling of morphia pills under the disguise of anti-opium pills was detected, and twenty-two seizures were made. In spite of all handicaps, postal business shows a fair record. The increasing scope of the operations, however, and the restricted accommodation at the Taiyüanfu Head Office have rendered it necessary for the Administration to acquire property with a view to building, and it is intended to erect a modern and well-appointed Head Office, adequate to the needs of the Shansi district for many years, on a site inside the Shou-i-mên, in proximity to the railway station.

HONAN.—The volume of postal business depends largely on the trade and industry of the province. In the spring and summer drought damaged the wheat and other crops. Then followed abnormal rains and disastrous floods. The struggles connected with the restoration of the monarchy and other political questions tended further to disturb the tranquillity of the province and disorganise the already greatly reduced trade. Most of the native banks stopped doing business. The Post Office money order business increased in consequence. Indeed, this fact, taken in conjunction with the cheaper provincial and inter-provincial rates for transmission of funds through the Post Office, caused an increase of 61 per cent in money orders issued; while the increased number of remittances from Honan coolies serving abroad and recruits for the Northern expeditionary forces against the South, contributed to increase money orders cashed by 34 per cent. Damage by floods to the railway tracks and bridges, and the consequent temporary dislocation or total cessation of traffic on the railway lines, imposed heavy burdens on the district staff in efficiently coping with the congested mails from north, south, east, and west. The rendering of speedy help on interrupted sections, the organising of new temporary mail routes, and the handling and clearing with expedition and accuracy of mails held up at many points, tried inspectors and mail-escorts very heavily. Despite all difficulties, however, ameliorations in many branches of postal activity were carried out, the sectional inspection scheme was completed, and good progress was made. With a view to greater safety and better check over the increasing parcel mails in transit, via Kwanyintang, destined for Shensi, Kansu, and beyond, a special staff is now provided at the Honanfu Office. Parcel mails are here checked, re-made and re-packed in Honanfu Office bags and forwarded thus to destination.

SHENSI.—The year has been a very bad one from the point of view of postal operations. Bands of *t'u-fei* roamed through the province, plundering and looting, and rendering frequent suspension of the mail services necessary. Towards the end of the year revolting troops added to the chaos by capturing a convoy of 250 camels, with guns and ammunition for Szechuan, which they proceeded to use for an attack on Sianfu. An attempt on the Tuchun's life failed, and after two days' fighting the rebel *t'u-fei* combination was driven from the city. Most of the fighting during these two days, however, was in the neighbourhood of the Sianfu Head Office, making the position of the staff, most of whom were unable to return to their homes, a dangerous one. After leaving Sianfu, the rebels fled west, looting towns and villages en route. Eight agencies lost practically all their postal balances and private effects. Offices and agencies looted during the year numbered 19. Trade is in many parts non-existent, the wealthier traders having removed elsewhere, while the remainder fear to resume business. On almost any of the main roads can be found the walls of what used to be thriving cities, but are now merely walled enclosures of vacant ground. Despite the wretched conditions, or perhaps because of them, confidence in the security of the Post Office as a transmitting medium grew, and was manifested in an increased money order and parcel business. The money order service in this province had to be suspended during the last two months of the year.

KANSU.—As a rule, the political struggles in other parts of the country have little effect on the people of Kansu. Local disturbances occurred in March at Kaichow Kan, the town being looted by bandits, and the Post Office suffering loss; and in May at Kweitehting, near the Tibetan border, where the *t'u-fei* had to be suppressed, and the city re-captured by the Mohammedan troops under General Ma An-liang. Exceptional rains in the summer swelled the rivers and streams, and made the roads in many regions impassable. Travellers in numerous cases lost their lives through the capsizing of ferry-boats. Several accidents to postal inspectors and mail couriers were reported, resulting in delays to mails on the main lines. All vehicular traffic was disorganised, mules died, and parcel mails on mules and carts were delayed from 10 to 20 days beyond schedule time. However, the plentiful rain gave promise of a good harvest, and the people look forward to a reduction in the cost of living, which has been abnormal in recent years. In spite of the dislocation of traffic on the roads, the number of parcels from the coast for delivery in Kansu increased. The Kansu district therefore has to pay heavily for the carriage of parcels, etc., the postage on which is collected in other districts. Owing to shipping difficulties, consequent upon the European War, the Kansu wool trade has not done well. The heavy taxes on goods imposed at the various barriers, too, have had a serious effect on the export of the products of the province, making local business stagnant and tying up money in Kansu. While postal receipts have improved, it must be some years before Kansu district becomes self-supporting, for very few Kansu people or merchants fare forth to reside as officials or merchants in other provinces.

SINKIANG.—Postal conditions in this district are in many respects abnormal, and special methods of transport have to be adopted to suit the long lines of communication across the desert. During the year conditions in the district were peaceful and progress was continued, notwithstanding the disinclination on the part of the people to submit their mail matter to the general censorship. The only extension worthy of record was the establishment of a line connecting Chimunai with Puertsinho, a distance of 250 *li*. Chimunai is situated on the Russo-Chinese border, and a Chinese Postal Agency has been established there, which in the near future will be replaced by an office. In the Altai region, where communications are exceptionally difficult, and where the population consists mainly of the nomadic Hassas or Quazacs and Mongols, two new agencies were opened, and the courier line between Sochefu (Yarkand) and Puli was converted from a weekly into a once-in-four-days day-and-night service. The provincial money order service shows promise of developing well, but difficulties in remitting funds restrict the inter-provincial service. Sinkiang is flooded with a depreciated paper currency, and roubles have become the medium of exchange for inter-provincial transactions. The abnormal fall in their value during the year involved a raising of rates on remittances on the part of native exchange banks and also of the Post Office, and conditions have consequently not been favourable for money order business with other provinces. The parcel service has shown a steady growth, and is proving very popular with merchants in getting their merchandise to and from the coast.

MANCHURIA.—Political changes, the Great War, the Russian revolution, highway robberies, and the unprecedented fluctuation of foreign moneys were the disquieting features that retarded postal extension in this district. Most branches of postal work, however, showed an increase. The prohibition by the Russian Government regarding the importation of parcels of a commercial nature into Russia retarded the progress of the parcel traffic. In summer, owing to insufficient accommodation on the South Manchuria Railway and the Chinese Eastern Railway trains, thousands of parcels were congested at Mukden, Kwanchengtze, and Harbin. The congestion lasted for a considerable time, and compelled the restriction of the acceptance of parcels. Provincial money orders rose greatly in the public favour, and, as there is no gain or loss by exchange on these, remitting by this medium was increasingly availed of as rouble exchange rates became more chaotic. Thus 41 additional offices were given provincial money order facilities. Towards the end of the year the Sze-cheng Railway was completed to Liaoyüanchow, and is running construction trains with mails. Another line—a branch of the Pekin–Mukden Railway—from Nüerho to Tayaokow, a distance of 70 *li*, was completed in March. The railway bridge at Talingho was damaged by floods in the summer, and there was interruption of the railway service for several days. In December a fire broke out in the mail-van of the Newchwang-Koupangtze line, destroying the van with all the mails. On account of low water the Amur and Sungari River mail services started very late in the season, only to be subsequently dislocated by strikes and demoralisation of crews. Tungpinghsien and Chaoyangchen Offices were destroyed by fire. Robbers attacked the Changkiawan Kir Office and killed the postmaster. At Kingsingchen Mongolian insurgents raided the town, and the Postal Agency was robbed. The mail exchange service between Suiyüanhsien and Khabarovsk had to be suspended, owing to the censorship of mails by the Russian Government. Mails from Suiyüanhsien for domestic places are sent overland by couriers. In Heilungkiang Province and along the Chinese Eastern Railway work has been badly handicapped by the Russian revolution and the heavy fall of roubles, the effects being keenly felt by both the Russian and the Chinese communities.

SHANTUNG.—The attempt to restore the monarchy in the summer and the consequent withdrawal of troops from inland places caused a recrudescence of highway robbery all over the province. Mails were frequently robbed en route, and the Shanhsien and Chengyang offices were looted. Economic conditions which earlier in the year were slowly recovering from the disturbances of 1916 became worse. A drought caused the failure of the wheat crop. Then followed the overflow of the Grand Canal near Tehchow, resulting in the worst floods Shantung has seen for many years. Communications by the Tsin-pu line were interrupted around Tehchow, and postal connection with places in Chihli was maintained by boat services. An appreciable decrease was observed in the number of international parcels leaving Shantung, this being due to restrictions on parcels destined for belligerent countries which now forbid the importation of lace, embroideries, and hair-nets, of which considerable quantities were formerly sent abroad by parcel post. To postal facilities is largely attributed the rapid recruiting of Chinese labour in Shantung. This enterprise needed advertisement, and, as the labourers recruited came mainly from remote villages, the facility with which they could be reached by notifications, and their letters, enclosing money orders, could be delivered, gave a considerable impetus to their recruitment as well as to postal operations, especially the money order business. Results, statistical and financial, greatly improved.

SZECHUAN.—The incessant bid for military supremacy in this province developed during the year into the most serious crisis the province has yet faced. The invasion of Szechuan by Yunnan and Kueichow troops last year culminated in April of this year in hostilities at Chengtu between the invaders and the provincial troops which resulted, after three days' severe fighting, in the withdrawal of the Yunnanese. Much loss of life and property occurred, and about 15,000 families were rendered homeless. Suifu then became the base of the future operations of the Yunnan troops, who occupied all places of strategic importance on the various routes leading thereto. The environs of Chengtu, with the exception of the regions immediately to the west and north, were still held by the Kueichow troops, and brigandage was rife everywhere. At the beginning of July the monarchy question supplied another casus belli, and the twelve days' fighting which ensued between the Szechuanese and the Kueichow troops resulted in the destruction of one-eighth of Chengtu city and the loss of thousands of lives. The fighting then extended throughout the province so that there was scarcely a place unaffected by the military operations. Northern troops sent into Szechuan to strengthen the authority of the Central Government and the revolt of certain Szechuan divisions resolved the struggle into one between North and South, and so it continued. The capture of Chungking by the

Yunnan and Szechuan troops was one episode of this struggle. Thus the great hindrance to trade, the unprecedented floods, and the sufferings of the people were an impediment to postal business, yet the natural expansion of a growing service manifested itself in results surpassing previous records. Despite the additional expenditure incurred through transport of mails by diverted and more costly routes, the Post Office flourished financially and otherwise. Escorts, whenever procurable, accompanied the mails and were frequently attacked. Unavoidable delays to both outward and inward parcel mails often occurred, but the marvel is that complete suspension was not necessary. The fact that the Post Office was practically the only channel by which goods could go and come with any chance of safe transport is accountable for the increase of parcels handled.

HUPEH.—The tea season of 1917 was not a great success, but the business done was satisfactory to those concerned. The restrictions placed by certain countries on the import of tea and the lack of freight space, combined with the high freight rates, militated against a large business in this commodity. The enhanced price of silver, with the consequent high exchange rates, had its effect on the general export trade, but hides did well owing to the need of leather on the part of the countries at war Hupeh remained quiet for the greater part of the year, but towards the end the presence of the opposing Northern and Southern forces made itself felt, and signs of a local panic were not wanting. However, no actual hostilities occurred during the period covered by this report. The new Head Office building was completed towards the end of February and has fulfilled expectations, the various departments being well accommodated and connected. The provision thereat of stabling accommodation allows of the Post Office keeping its own ponies for the mail-vans, and the hiring system has therefore ceased.

HUNAN.—From the beginning of the year the whole province was in a state of unrest and under martial law. This involved censorship of mails at all offices. Towards the end of October brigandage became rife, and in November lawlessness prevailed for more than a week in Changsha. At Paoking and Yungfeng the post offices were attacked and robbed of official funds, while the staff lost their belongings. Some twenty postal agencies were looted or destroyed, and in four cases couriers were waylaid and robbed. From November the parcel boat service with Kueichow via the Yüan River had to be suspended on account of the activities of robber bands infesting the district between Hungkiang, Yüanchow Hun, and Chenyüan. The parcel mails to and from Kueichow had consequently to be diverted to the Szechuan route via Chungking. Widespread floods in the summer ruined the rice crops, entailing great hardship upon the people, and the climax came in the depreciation of the Hunan Local Government bank-notes to one-third of their face value. These hardships notwithstanding, postal results showed an all-round improvement except under the heading of "Parcels," which continue to be mainly *imported*. In accordance with the general scheme for inspection and control, the district was divided into five sections each having an inspector, the five centres being Changsha, Changteh, Leiyang, Yungchowfu, and Hungkiang.

KIANGSI.—The year passed without any event of a startling nature for this district. Political disturbances and invasion threatened the province, but each crisis was successfully surmounted and peace maintained. The paper currency held up during the year, the locally issued notes continued to circulate, and the Bank of China notes were kept up to face value. The satisfactory financial situation and the presence of troops stimulated the money-order business. There was a drop in the number of insured letters posted, a fact which is doubtless due to public confidence in the regularity of the ordinary service. The rural service has been successfully inaugurated and will gradually be extended, providing feeding lines to the regular routes.

KIANGSU.—The results of this district have continued to improve, but the depressing atmosphere created by disorder within the nation and war without has checked that rapidity of progress which normal conditions would ensure. Additional expenditure was entailed for provisional services by wheelbarrows and overland couriers when the water routes became icebound. The commandeering without notice of trains and rolling stock on the Tsin-pu line for the transport of troops and even for barracks interfered greatly with the regular communications by this line. The local trains between Pukow and Süchowfu, when they did run, were unpunctual in their departures and consequently made arrivals of mails at the termini uncertain. The floods in Chihli at the close of the summer necessitated the diversion of Nanking mails for the north from the Tsin-pu Railway route to the sea route via Shanghai. On October 3 the Tsin-pu Railway steam-ferry *Feihung*, proceeding to the Shanghai-Nanking Railway wharf, carrying 202 bags and 381 covers of mails from Peking, Tientsin, etc., collided with the Chinese gunboat *Ch'u Yü* while trying to avoid a rice-junk, and sank in ten minutes. The people on board managed to save themselves by jumping on to the gunboat. Of the mails, 25 bags and 216 covers were subsequently recovered.

SHANGHAI.—The trade of Shanghai, and consequently the postal business of the port, is bound to reflect the general conditions of the country during the year. Business was practically suspended with all the provinces to the south and west for months, while revolt and independence were declared and warlike operations were in progress. The internal disorder and unrest in other directions also had their detrimental effect. Nevertheless, the satisfactory results obtained in postal operations show that, given peaceful conditions throughout the country, immense progress is certain. Among the difficulties that had to be met were the disorganisation of the steam-launch mail services in the winter through the freezing of the canals and waterways, the dislocation of railway communications with the North owing to the floods, and the delays to southern mails owing to shortage of coast steamers, due to the requisitioning of many of these by foreign governments. Two cases of shipwreck, involving heavy losses of mails, have to be recorded. The work of improving and accelerating the existing services, both at the Head Office and at the inland establishments, begun last year, was assiduously carried out during the year, the result being very satisfactory.

ANHUI.—There were local disturbances, having their origin in the movements of troops in connection with the attempted monarchy restoration in July. All banks and shops at Pengpu stopped business, fearing to be looted. Wuhohsien and Szechow were pillaged on July 22 and 26 respectively. The populace at Lüchowfu and Chuchow An, taking alarm, fled in great numbers to the ports. From this date to the end of October, when the provincial troops left for military operations in Hunan, the province from Lüchowfu northwards was in a state of anarchy. Many brigands emerged, and frequent encounters took place with the troops between Showchow, Lüchowfu, and Fengyang. On September 2 a certain division of An-wu soldiers mutinied, killed their commander, and looted shops inside and outside of the city. The city gates were closed, and, until order was restored, mails had to be hauled over the city wall. As in other provinces, dislocation of the water-routes necessitated the arranging of temporary overland services; then heavy rains disorganised these, and delays were the inevitable result. The floods in Chihli caused a falling off in the number of parcels received; those containing felt caps and furs did not put in an appearance. Inspection and general improvement of inland services were proceeded with.

CHEKIANG.—This province has to chronicle temporary declaration of independence, local disturbance, and rebellion of troops, with the usual looting which accompanies these outbreaks. Ningpo, Wenchow, and Pokwan were the places most affected. Hangchow was threatened but not attacked, and business was fairly satisfactory. Evidence of this is given in the number of fine new buildings erected or in course of erection in the provincial capital. Postal business made progress. Five cases of highway robbery involving loss of mail matter occurred, although escorts of soldiers or police on the dangerous lines conduced to minimise such attack. One police escort was shot and killed, however, by robbers on the Pokwan-Sinchanghsien line, and the local authorities requested that the daily day-and-night service be altered to a daily one, as no policeman would, after this occurrence, willingly escort night couriers. The Mokanshan Post Office, usually open in the summer only, continued to function during the winter months. The usual minor interruptions, which are experienced practically every year, occurred in the rail and boat services, but were successfully met.

FUKIEN.—During 1917 postal affairs in this district continued to make progress, this being the second year in which the district was self-supporting. The earlier part of the year gave the best results, the falling off later on being due to the disturbances in other parts of the country and the consequent censorship, which diverted considerable business to alien offices. The enhanced postal business is attributable largely to improved conditions at inland offices and agecnies, due to proper inspection, and to the consequent increase of public confidence.

Parcels for northern ports and for up-river places in this province increased considerably, additional boats being engaged for the latter. Highway robberies were frequent, the most noteworthy cases being the loss of stamps to the value of $1624 at Shuichao, on the Changchowfu-Lungyenchow line, and 23 valuable parcels at Hsiaolou, on the Chüanchowfu-Yungchun line. Through systematic search, however, and with official assistance, these were all eventually recovered, greatly to the credit of the inspectors concerned. Heavy floods and typhoons caused occasional interruptions. Due to the war, there have been fewer steamers plying between Foochow and the northern and southern ports. Mails between Foochow and Amoy have therefore frequently been forwarded overland.

KUANGTUNG.—Until June the province had peace, but the events since then are now a matter of history. The establishment of the so-called Military Government; the opening of the extraordinary parliament; the differences of opinion between local officials and the Military Government; the revolt of troops at Waichow, which affected also Poklo and Sheklung; the declaration of independence against the Kuangtung Government by Defence Commissioner Mo Ch'ing-yü, of Swatow, with consequent fighting at Laolung, Chonglok, Hingninghsien, and a dozen other places; the assumption by General Lung Chi-kuang of the Inspector-Generalship of the Liang-Kuang, with the operations, naval and military, which that step entailed—all these have kept the province in a state of ferment. Courier services had occasionally to be suspended, coast and river steam-services were interrupted, commerce was at a standstill, and the whole Swatow section remained till the close of the year in a chaotic condition. In April and August there were severe floods; courier lines in the East, West, and North River sections were interrupted, and postmen had to deliver mails by boats. There were sixty-five cases of brigandage and piracy, which resulted in loss of mails and postal property. In twenty other cases couriers were robbed of their own belongings. In twenty-five cases offices or the shops of agents and box-holders were pillaged, and in five cases similar establishments were destroyed by fire. In three instances couriers were so badly wounded as to be quite unfit for further duty. Thus the natural progress of the Post Office was impeded, and the results of the year's working, while satisfactory, are by no means what they would have been had the year been a peaceful one.

KUANGSI.—As in Kuangtung, the opening of the year seemed to promise peace and prosperity, but political unrest and two floods falsified this expectation. Trade suffered, several large business houses of long standing in Wuchow and Nanning became bankrupt, and motor-boat companies at Wuchow took a number of boats off the Wuchow-Nanning run. Yet the silk piece-goods trade with Kuangtung revived, and is largely responsible for a substantial increase in the parcel business of the Kuangsi Post Office. Increasing confidence in the Post Office, or the instability of the local cash shops, brought a marked increase (33 per cent) in the money order business. A glance at the map of this province would seem to suggest that there are still large areas yet to be opened to postal communication, but this is not so, as these areas are very sparsely populated and without trade, or are inhabited by independent tribes, or infested with bandits. Bandits held up twenty-eight couriers, and robbed seventeen of their mails. One courier on the Chongon-Huangminhu line was murdered, and another, with the assistance of some farmers, captured the robber who attacked him. Six motor-boats and three native (post) boats were pirated, mails being lost in five cases. Four motor-boats were wrecked, but only in one case were the mails irrecoverable.

YUNNAN.—The same lawless conditions as prevailed in 1916 continued throughout this year also. Outlaws, who were mostly disbanded soldiers, made inland travel extremely unsafe. Tons of goods lying at interior places could not be brought to towns along the railway, thence to be exported. With commendable patience and resource, however, merchants adapted themselves to this constant state of unrest and uncertainty, and business was better than in the previous year. In June censorship was enforced on mail matter. When the troops left for Szechuan postal receipts fell, yet on the whole the Post Office did well. There were fifty-six highway robberies in which mail matter was lost. Three couriers were killed and fifteen wounded. Howyentsing, Ilung, Fukwantsun, Nananchow, and Kükiang were thoroughly looted, the Post Offices having heavy losses in money and stamps. The parcel and money order services made good improvement. Interruptions of the Yunnan Railway in May and August made the organisation of emergency overland services necessary. Difficulties were experienced again this year in securing pack-animals to convey the heavy mails, as all available animals were commandeered by the military authorities and sent to Szechuan.

KUEICHOW.—The year opened well in this corner of the country with brisk trade, despite the activities of certain robber bands. In the last three months, however, when the confusion in Szechuan and Hunan was at its height, routes leading to the Yangtze Provinces were blocked, and Kueichow merchants, forewarned by a similar experience in 1915, practically ceased business. The Changteh-Chenyüan post-boats stopped carrying parcels after being twice attacked. The Szechuan-Kueichow heavy mail service was interrupted during the fighting between the Kueichow and the Northern troops, but was resumed soon after the fall of Chungking. As in Yunnan, the commandeering of labourers and pack-animals for military service hampered the transport of heavy mails. Twenty-four cases of robbery were reported, resulting in thirteen losses of mails. Many couriers were injured and one was killed. Sectional inspection was undertaken with satisfactory results, which were shown in the maintenance of the courier services according to schedule and in the increase of all categories of postal business.

H. PICARD-DESTELAN,
Co-Director-General.

DIRECTORATE GENERAL OF POSTS,
PEKING, *May* 15, 1918.

PART III

APPENDIX I

SUMMARY OF CHINESE POST OFFICE ESTABLISHMENTS OPEN AT END OF THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE SUMMARY FOR 1916.

Postal Divisions.		1916.		1917.	
Districts	District Cities.	Head, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class, and Sub Offices.	Postal Agencies.	Head, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class, and Sub-Offices.	Postal Agencies.
Chihli . . .	145	189	746	191	806
Shansi . . .	104	38	271	40	270
Honan . . .	101	76	423	87	461
Shensi . . .	85	27	171	37	165
Kansu . . .	55	21	100	21	101
Sinkiang . .	22	21	34	21	38
Manchuria . .	75	201	423	203	443
Shantung . .	104	104	408	104	455
Szechuan . .	131	117	555	127	563
Hupeh . . .	67	87	307	90	313
Hunan . . .	67	57	338	57	338
Kiangsi . . .	79	77	428	85	421
Kiangsu . . .	53	95	369	98	372
Shanghai (local) .	14	61	36	61	36
Anhwei . . .	55	69	464	79	467
Chekiang . .	78	69	324	73	322
Fukien . . .	58	72	325	75	333
Kuangtung . .	83	132	893	131	929
Kuangsi . .	90	32	237	31	238
Yunnan . . .	66	40	164	42	172
Kweichow . .	49	31	165	30	177
Total . .	1,581	1,616	7,181	1,683	7,420

APPEN

MAIL MATTER RECEIVED

Districts.	Letters.		Postcards.		Newspapers and Printed Matter.	Commercial Papers.
	Franked.	Unfranked.	Single.	Reply.		
Chihli . .	62,426,433	54,700	5,123,870	2,920	17,737,700	88,200
Shansi . .	8,092,496	3,200	772,300	800	2,392,100	31,900
Honan . .	12,982,071	3,100	1,346,400	200	3,771,300	34,500
Shensi . .	5,129,800	500	99,600	4,300	756,600	900
Kansu . .	1,593,000	1,000	35,000	200	462,800	6,600
Sinkiang . .	714,700	2,600	6,000	100	90,800	—
Manchuria .	36,557,941	39,700	2,672,000	500	6,787,300	130,200
Shantung . .	19,446,180	15,800	1,171,000	6,200	5,253,400	245,200
Szechuan . .	14,098,600	12,000	1,042,000	3,900	7,706,900	51,300
Hupeh . .	17,085,272	14,700	3,126,600	200	5,332,500	15,200
Hunan . .	8,070,800	25,300	1,779,200	400	2,957,400	89,200
Kiangsi . .	7,465,915	2,900	838,400	2,500	10,135,700	149,300
Kiangsu . .	23,256,283	89,200	10,728,500	200	9,374,200	251,100
Shanghai (local)	26,189,007	78,900	7,433,500	1,500	6,263,500	52,200
Anhwei . .	9,483,334	17,800	2,315,100	300	3,681,440	33,000
Chekiang . .	11,806,250	33,700	6,244,400	300	5,601,400	272,400
Fukien . .	9,527,104	31,600	1,070,900	1,100	3,184,500	98,500
Kwangtung .	40,363,197	91,900	408,371	800	4,801,120	13,620
Kwangsi . .	4,093,500	6,900	159,850	150	1,460,700	66,800
Yunnan . .	3,436,603	8,000	67,500	1,000	1,025,500	18,000
Kweichow .	1,738,900	3,300	170,900	1,300	835,300	2,000
Total .	323,557,386	536,800	46,611,391	28,870	99,612,160	1,650,120

DIX II

DURING THE YEAR.

SAMPLES OF MER-CHANDISE.	FREE CORRESPONDENCE.		TOTAL.	INCLUDED IN THE TOTAL WERE:		
	Letters.	Other Articles.		Registered Articles.	Express Articles.	Insured Letters.
73,400	582,200	1,844,900	87,934,323	7,801,970	1,298,900	6,733
7,400	62,370	503,030	11,865,596	1,391,100	20,560	36
16,700	196,600	934,500	19,285,371	2,217,000	110,400	271
5,600	49,300	58,500	6,105,100	1,452,700	34,300	—
4,100	14,400	325,200	2,442,300	843,600	6,200	—
200	7,300	1,400	823,100	198,400	—	—
60,500	348,200	120,200	46,716,541	3,156,200	216,300	3,041
26,000	120,500	48,100	26,332,380	2,905,600	145,300	580
21,500	185,800	72,600	23,194,600	3,964,000	235,200	—
14,700	1,079,400	32,300	26,700,872	2,723,200	152,400	1,972
5,400	128,100	98,300	13,154,100	1,273,100	76,900	—
10,200	14,000	9,400	18,628,315	964,200	112,600	215
38,400	181,700	379,200	44,298,783	3,077,500	659,900	2,283
39,900	222,800	20,000	40,301,307	2,480,700	531,400	5,407
13,510	344,750	36,200	15,925,434	1,410,000	109,270	64
14,200	80,400	329,000	24,382,050	1,328,900	307,200	1,750
19,900	92,200	75,300	14,101,104	1,091,100	64,800	7,204
9,700	269,004	59,400	46,017,112	1,358,590	51,975	2,347
3,200	97,350	5,900	5,894,350	667,100	9,550	—
4,100	51,300	10,800	4,622,803	1,378,300	10,900	3
6,400	37,900	65,700	2,861,700	619,200	18,900	—
395,010	4,165,574	5,029,930	481,587,241	42,302,460	4,172,955	31,906

APPEN

MAIL MATTER POSTED

Districts.	Letters.		Postcards.		Newspapers and Printed Matter.	Com-mercial Papers.
	Franked.	Unfranked.	Single.	Reply.		
Chihli . .	24,253,962	25,420	2,351,570	230	9,757,450	2,250
Shansi . .	3,742,416	800	393,900	200	593,600	400
Honan . .	5,542,886	2,600	792,500	200	826,200	1,100
Shensi . .	1,873,800	300	67,300	2,200	117,900	900
Kansu . .	1,004,200	400	20,800	100	93,700	—
Sinkiang . .	479,800	800	5,100	—	9,400	—
Manchuria .	19,892,436	30,500	1,567,000	—	3,493,900	68,900
Shantung . .	9,047,075	1,600	506,300	2,500	1,173,300	20,100
Szechuan . .	6,855,700	1,900	565,700	1,900	2,223,600	6,600
Hupeh . .	8,981,152	7,200	1,860,300	200	1,493,800	2,700
Hunan . .	4,442,400	11,800	1,131,000	100	756,400	8,900
Kiangsi . .	4,867,299	1,700	472,800	1,300	2,182,500	3,900
Kiangsu . .	13,399,349	71,300	6,860,400	—	1,353,700	23,500
Shanghai (local)	17,495,764	39,300	6,736,800	900	23,730,600	36,200
Anhwei . .	5,065,737	15,000	1,457,900	300	404,830	2,700
Chekiang . .	7,294,994	36,600	4,053,900	300	1,757,500	30,700
Fukien . .	5,193,267	9,400	690,800	500	992,000	3,500
Kwangtung .	26,059,010	19,800	183,210	450	1,985,980	11,205
Kwangsi . .	2,130,100	1,200	109,800	100	391,500	850
Yunnan . .	1,989,903	2,900	51,900	1,200	168,400	400
Kweichow .	1,192,100	500	178,600	1,400	91,700	—
Total . .	170,803,350	281,020	30,057,580	14,080	53,606,960	224,805

DIX III

DURING THE YEAR.

Samples of Merchandise.	Free Correspondence.		Total.	Included in the Totals were:		
	Letters.	Other Articles.		Registered Articles.	Express Articles.	Insured Letters.
31,900	375,650	674,950	37,473,382	2,653,623	854,950	10,562
1,200	45,310	215,800	4,993,626	662,500	16,330	96
6,700	146,200	340,400	7,658,786	856,200	116,100	1,486
3,600	49,700	36,100	2,151,800	365,900	23,500	—
1,000	12,500	239,100	1,371,800	580,300	6,300	—
100	5,600	1,100	501,900	118,500	—	—
37,500	239,500	84,900	25,414,636	1,816,600	231,700	5,536
13,100	118,900	41,000	10,924,175	1,049,300	108,200	1,475
7,000	97,200	30,400	9,790,000	1,355,900	211,000	—
20,400	473,000	18,200	12,856,952	1,130,700	138,400	1,552
3,600	101,200	50,500	6,505,900	794,700	64,300	—
3,800	21,900	10,500	7,565,699	551,000	117,000	499
17,300	117,200	138,500	21,981,249	1,224,400	640,300	1,149
43,000	237,000	13,400	48,341,964	1,424,000	485,400	3,064
8,210	240,110	37,500	7,232,287	626,200	116,100	87
9,100	106,800	200,800	13,490,694	832,400	334,100	694
10,200	70,000	37,300	7,006,967	493,600	41,700	1,467
4,760	155,715	32,100	28,452,230	631,870	47,640	4,470
2,050	79,400	4,550	2,719,550	329,900	8,200	—
2,300	31,800	6,900	2,255,703	636,400	6,000	3
3,500	35,600	40,300	1,543,700	354,700	18,100	—
230,320	2,760,285	2,254,600	260,233,000	18,488,690	3,585,320	32,140

APPEN

MAIL MATTER IN TRANSIT

Districts.	Ordinary Letters.		Postcards.		Newspapers and Printed Matter.	Commercial Papers.
	Franked.	Unfranked.	Single.	Reply.		
Chihli . .	35,192,250	13,400	2,333,860	270	8,850,500	3,570
Shansi . .	4,800,420	900	450,200	200	1,343,900	4,800
Honan . .	7,130,600	600	665,600	100	2,124,600	16,100
Shensi . .	2,703,500	200	94,500	3,600	383,800	300
Kansu . .	766,400	400	15,700	100	252,400	—
Sinkiang . .	280,900	700	2,100	—	13,900	—
Manchuria .	18,642,400	18,200	1,179,700	—	3,533,400	30,500
Shantung . .	12,275,100	8,300	679,900	2,100	2,109,800	120,600
Szechuan . .	5,247,800	2,000	347,700	600	3,549,200	17,200
Hupeh . .	7,572,800	2,100	1,164,400	100	2,331,700	3,100
Hunan . .	3,362,100	7,200	652,300	100	1,035,200	14,800
Kiangsi . .	4,692,000	1,700	547,100	1,500	5,005,800	59,400
Kiangsu . .	10,786,700	31,200	4,529,700	—	2,512,900	124,500
Shanghai (local)	6,825,600	8,300	1,985,700	1,200	2,052,000	11,100
Anhwei . .	4,340,960	5,400	883,900	—	1,547,100	2,700
Chekiang .	4,697,800	10,100	2,516,600	100	2,007,100	9,900
Fukien . .	5,200,900	15,500	510,500	600	1,704,400	8,000
Kwangtung .	16,777,600	47,800	231,050	300	1,913,000	4,220
Kwangsi . .	2,042,650	5,100	71,000	100	947,600	32,800
Yunnan . .	1,682,200	3,500	40,000	500	617,500	1,600
Kweichow .	845,200	1,600	80,300	600	432,300	800
Total .	155,865,880	184,200	18,981,810	12,070	44,268,100	465,990

DIX IV

DURING THE YEAR.

Samples of Merchandise.	Free Correspondence.		Total.	Included in the Total were:		
	Letters.	Other Articles.		Registered Articles.	Express Articles.	nsured Letters.
30,700	143,320	925,300	47,493,170	4,322,230	560,270	—
3,500	15,600	260,100	6,879,620	807,000	420	—
8,000	80,000	525,100	10,550,700	1,309,800	22,100	—
3,700	15,300	30,600	3,235,500	748,000	3,100	—
1,200	2,800	144,500	1,183,500	400,600	200	—
—	800	—	298,400	72,400	—	—
26,800	103,500	31,600	23,566,100	1,531,700	3,700	—
12,100	42,300	20,000	15,270,200	1,415,100	39,100	—
7,400	12,800	9,300	9,194,000	1,458,700	11,200	—
7,300	575,400	11,600	11,668,500	1,590,800	10,300	—
2,400	38,500	28,800	5,141,400	587,500	4,800	—
6,200	10,300	2,600	10,326,600	533,300	53,900	—
16,100	66,600	248,400	18,316,100	1,826,700	33,300	—
15,100	87.700	2,600	10,989,300	1,458,300	700	—
4,500	118,500	8,400	6,911,460	715,300	14,360	—
4,900	13,600	160,000	9,420,100	558,500	22,900	—
10,200	39,700	28,100	7,517,900	638,400	15,900	—
5,100	58,900	22,610	19,060,580	653,670	2,610	—
1,550	28,500	2,400	3,131,700	313,100	350	—
1,900	21,000	2,500	2,370,700	730,900	3,500	—
2,900	13,500	25,400	1,402,600	307,500	3,200	—
171,550	1,488,620	2,489,910	223,928,130	21,979,500	805,910	—

APPENDIX V

SUMMARY OF MAIL MATTER DEALT WITH DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TOTALS FOR 1916.

DISTRICTS.	MAIL MATTER.			TOTAL (1917).	TOTAL (1916).
	Received.	Posted.	In Transit.		
Chihli . .	87,934,323	37,473,382	47,493,170	172,900,875	158,086,623
Shansi . .	11,865,596	4,993,626	6,879,620	23,738,842	20,903,029
Honan . .	19,285,371	7,658,786	10,550,700	37,494,857	32,748,958
Shensi . .	6,105,100	2,151,800	3,235,500	11,492,400	10,994,900
Kansu . .	2,442,300	1,371,800	1,183,500	4,997,600	4,284,200
Sinkiang . .	823,100	501,900	298,400	1,623,400	1,624,200
Manchuria .	46,716,541	25,414,636	23,566,100	95,697,277	76,614,497
Shantung . .	26,332,380	10,924,175	15,270,200	52,526,755	42,926,304
Szechuan . .	23,194,600	9,790,000	9,194,000	42,178,600	39,742,800
Hupeh . .	26,700,872	12,856,952	11,668,500	51,226,324	48,621,384
Hunan . .	13,154,100	6,505,900	5,141,400	24,801,400	24,663,000
Kiangsi . .	18,628,315	7,565,699	10,326,600	36,520,614	32,843,102
Kiangsu . .	44,298,783	21,981,249	18,316,100	84,596,132	74,610,863
Shanghai (local)	40,301,307	48,341,964	10,989,300	99,632,571	92,032,102
Anhwei . .	15,925,434	7,232,287	6,911,460	30,069,181	25,940,064
Chekiang . .	24,382,050	13,490,694	9,420,100	47,292,844	41,611,995
Fukien . .	14,101,104	7,006,967	7,517,900	28,625,971	26,023,089
Kwangtung .	46,017,112	28,452,230	19,060,580	93,529,922	87,279,991
Kwangsi . .	5,894,350	2,719,550	3,131,700	11,745,600	10,947,450
Yunnan . .	4,622,803	2,255,703	2,370,700	9,249,206	7,890,147
Kweichow .	2,861,700	1,543,700	1,402,600	5,808,000	5,083,000
Gross total .	481,587,241	260,233,000	223,928,130	965,748,371	865,471,698
Deduct in transit	223,928,130	—	—	223,928,130	199,182,318
Net total .	257,659,111	260,233,000	223,928,130	741,820,241	666,289,380

APPENDIX VI

NUMBER OF ARTICLES POSTED FOR LOCAL DELIVERY DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TOTALS FOR 1916.

DISTRICTS.	Letters.	Other Articles.	Total (1917).	Total (1916).
Chihli	2,213,300	3,555,700	5,769,000	5,315,000
Shansi	12,000	2,000	14,000	9,300
Honan	42,200	12,200	54,400	34,100
Shensi	8,800	4,200	13,000	9,100
Kansu	700	500	1,200	800
Sinkiang	600	—	600	700
Manchuria	248,900	70,900	319,800	267,300
Shantung	92,000	41,700	133,700	127,800
Szechuan	357,900	56,300	414,200	321,300
Hupeh	828,000	170,900	998,900	870,400
Hunan	104,400	50,600	155,000	121,600
Kiangsi	57,000	22,200	79,200	53,200
Kiangsu	658,100	372,900	1,031,000	650,200
Shanghai (local) . .	3,930,000	1,271,300	5,201,300	5,786,800
Anhwei	36,300	2,600	38,900	26,700
Chekiang	438,800	287,700	726,500	686,800
Fukien	113,000	19,800	132,800	133,900
Kwangtung	2,914,000	83,900	2,997,900	2,742,200
Kwangsi	10,800	800	11,600	10,000
Yunnan	12,400	600	13,000	9,700
Kweichow	34,900	7,500	42,400	21,200
Total . .	12,114,100	6,034,300	18,148,400	17,197,900

APPENDIX VII

NUMBER OF ARTICLES COLLECTED FROM LETTER-BOXES, BOX OFFICES, AND PILLAR-BOXES DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TABLES FOR 1916.

Districts.	Letters.	Other Articles.	Total (1917).	Total (1916).
Chihli	6,219,500	1,741,000	7,960,500	5,475,200
Shansi	176,900	8,300	185,200	208,000
Honan	915,200	589,000	1,504,200	925,900
Shensi	276,300	30,200	306,500	285,200
Kansu	17,600	1,100	18,700	16,300
Sinkiang	10,900	—	10,900	8,600
Manchuria	3,586,100	370,200	3,956,300	3,150 800
Shantung	1,216,700	47,900	1,264,600	975,500
Szechuan	990,200	164,100	1,154,300	904,500
Hupeh	2,194,100	266,200	2,460,300	1,884,300
Hunan	1,065,500	396,300	1,461,800	1,124,600
Kiangsi	545,400	138,500	683,900	557,700
Kiangsu	4,415,100	2,330,100	6,745,200	5,551,000
Shanghai local)	11,319,000	1,271,500	12,590,500	10,184,200
Anhwei	914,300	87,000	1,001,300	834,600
Chekiang	1,389,700	1,285,700	2,675,400	3,407,200
Fukien	773,700	76,000	849,700	962,700
Kwangtung	9,984,000	387,600	10,371,600	9,417,100
Kwangsi	354,300	9,800	364,100	401,000
Yunnan	63,500	2,100	65,600	38,400
Kweichow	87,400	21,000	108,400	79,600
Total	46,515,400	9,223,600	55,739,000	46,419,400

APPENDIX VIII

INSURED LETTERS DEALT WITH DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TOTALS FOR 1916.

District.	Received.		Posted.		Total (1917).		Total (1916).	
	Number.	Insured for	Number.	Insured for	Number.	Insured for	Number.	Insured for
		$		$		$		$
Chihli	6,733	381,676	10,562	699,094	17,295	1,080,770	19,733	977,980
Shansi	36	5,880	96	5,531	132	11,411	769	35,819
Honan	271	12,339	1,486	101,020	1,757	113,359	3,258	191,386
Shensi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kansu	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manchuria	3,041	520,229	5,536	441,988	8,577	962,217	11,197	490,527
Shantung	580	34,618	1,475	70,510	2,055	105,128	2,804	127,648
Szechuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hupeh	1,972	113,488	1,552	78,152	3,524	191,640	3,284	180,144
Hunan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kiangsi	215	6,953	499	13,130	714	20,083	1,502	71,140
Kiangsu	2,283	94,737	1,149	55,183	3,432	149,920	4,163	163,665
Shanghai (local)	5,407	414,470	3,064	283,694	8,471	698,164	9,402	433,091
Anhwei	64	4,722	87	5,193	151	9,915	210	8,401
Chekiang	1,750	70,402	694	27,312	2,444	97,714	2,895	106,768
Fukien	7,204	295,226	1,467	76,606	8,671	371,832	9,289	391,698
Kwangtung	2,347	115,530	4,470	268,122	6,817	383,652	4,311	188,603
Kwangsi	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Yunnan	3	150	3	150	6	300	—	—
Kweichow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	31,906	2,070,420	32,140	2,125,685	64,046	4,196,105	72,817	3,366,870

APPENDIX IX

CLUBBED MAILS DEALT WITH DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TOTALS FOR 1916.

DISTRICTS.	TOTAL (1917).			TOTAL (1916).
	Number of packages.	Weight.	Number of letters contained in.	Number of letters contained in.
		Kilos.		
Chihli	10,740	2,343	315,140	262,500
Shansi	400	23	1,210	1,400
Honan	4,000	302	22,900	40,400
Shensi	—	—	—	—
Kansu	—	—	—	—
Sinkiang	—	—	—	—
Manchuria	78	3	200	310
Shantung	523	70	5,723	1,492
Szechuan	2,100	760	40,200	—
Hupeh	50,200	5,527	486,700	495,200
Hunan	1,900	500	30,700	29,000
Kiangsi	17,600	1,120	68,700	90,000
Kiangsu	52,300	4,000	459,900	425,700
Shanghai (local)	71,900	9,757	1,010,000	1,028,200
Anhwei	44,400	2,800	270,400	271,700
Chekiang	5,200	940	137,700	171,800
Fukien	28,800	7,400	1,172,200	797,300
Kwangtung	28,090	5,640	1,105,320	1,174,900
Kwangsi	—	—	—	—
Yunnan	—	—	—	—
Kweichow	—	—	—	—
Total	317,731	41,185	5,126,993	4,789,902

APPENDIX X

SUMMARY OF PARCELS DEALT WITH DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE TOTALS FOR 1916.

DISTRICTS.	RECEIVED.		POSTED.		IN TRANSIT.		TOTAL (1917).		TOTAL (1916).	
	Number.	Weight.	Number.	Weight.	Number.	Weight.	Number.	Weight.	Number.	Weight.
		Kilos.		*Kilos.*		*Kilos.*		*Kilos.*		*Kilos.*
Chihli	1,147,600	3,950,000	710,500	2,648,800	687,400	2,157,400	2,545,500	8,756,200	2,364,700	7,745,200
Shansi	247,700	1,158,600	35,700	109,600	119,000	399.500	402,400	1,667,700	331,900	1,092,000
Honan	308,300	859,600	92,800	324,900	174,400	416,600	575,500	1,601,100	556,600	1,545,800
Shensi	252,200	698,400	29,400	85,200	218,700	485,300	500,300	1,268,900	329,500	867,400
Kansu	80,100	300,000	17,800	68,900	43,900	167,700	141,800	536,600	112,500	368,700
Sinkiang	14,900	64,500	1,500	2,800	4,800	19,500	21,200	86,800	650	1,070
Manchuria	922,100	3,843,300	239,600	845,800	513,900	1,770,400	1,675,600	6,459,500	1,366,700	4,841,300
Shantung	310,900	822,400	149,300	524,300	161,000	420,700	621,200	1,767,400	588,200	1,854,500
Szechuan	160,600	891,800	114,800	571,500	87,800	361,200	363,200	1,824,500	261,600	1,025,600
Hupeh	386,400	1,372,700	129,300	463,100	235,000	713,100	750,700	2,548,900	707,700	2,432,300
Hunan	170,400	659,100	31,600	68,500	65,200	113,100	267,200	840,700	273,500	860.400
Kiangsi	131,800	393,700	35,300	82,900	83,600	243,400	250,700	720,000	201,300	419 800
Kiangsu	313,400	928,600	275,400	819,100	168,400	482,600	757,200	2,230,300	678,100	1,970,900
Shanghai (local)	308,200	1,171,300	412,600	1,974,000	262,300	1,015,100	983,100	4,160.400	869.400	3,672,800
Anhwei	171,800	385,100	38,200	71,800	86,500	178,000	296,500	634,900	309,200	628,500
Chekiang	114,100	305,800	110,400	414,700	55,600	112,400	280,100	832,900	234,250	677,200
Fukien	211,900	618,500	79,000	240,200	120,100	342,300	411,000	1,201,000	374,700	976,700
Kwangtung	160,900	843,900	97,225	551,421	47,106	143,650	305,231	1,538,971	267,806	1,310,006
Kwangsi	72,000	264,600	7,630	15,700	36,400	83,500	116,030	363,800	91,400	252,400
Yunnan	66,400	355,200	15,400	61,200	31,100	108,000	112,900	524,400	69,200	332,800
Kweichow	45,700	109,500	16,900	61,900	25,100	60,900	87,700	232,300	43,700	121,500
Gross total	5,597,400	19,996,600	2,640,355	10,006,321	3,227,306	9,794,350	11,465.061	39,797,271	10,032,606	32,996,676
Deduct, in transit	3,227,306	9,794,350	—	—	—	—	3,227,306	9,794,350	2,837,506	8,014,376
Net total	2,370,094	10,202,250	2,640,355	10,006,321	3,227,306	9.794,350	8,237,755	30,002,921	7,195,100	24.982,300

APPENDIX XI

MONEY-ORDER TRANSACTIONS DURING THE YEAR, WITH COMPARATIVE FIGURES FOR 1916.

Districts.	Issued.				Cashed.			
	1916.		1917.		1916.		1917.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
		$		$		$		$
Chihli	143,000	1,962,000	185,400	2,910,400	227,400	3,627,300	306,900	4,912,200
Shansi	13,800	281,500	19,700	429,200	9,300	195,800	12,200	278,500
Honan	48,200	701,000	64,700	1,130,000	59,100	797,700	74,700	1,064,800
Shensi	19,000	555,100	17,500	569,600	4,800	160,300	7,700	267,100
Kansu	10,100	320,800	13,900	540,200	1,400	38,300	1,500	38,100
Sinkiang	—	—	600	8,800	—	—	300	3,600
Manchuria	89,500	1,448,300	131,700	1,982,600	34,600	478,800	64,100	714,900
Shantung	67,300	1,021,800	187,900	2,425,000	103,300	1,628,200	167,800	2,515,000
Szechuan	45,600	1,215,700	43,900	1,222,000	32,500	911,500	33,700	893,300
Hupeh	89,600	1,492,700	94,200	1,542,300	51,900	869,700	57,000	1,013,900
Hunan	40,900	813,500	35,800	771,800	31,200	658,400	33,700	794,000
Kiangsi	38,900	513,600	46,000	623,500	26,300	416,900	29,200	499,000
Kiangsu	143,200	1,496,100	174,200	1,947,000	157,000	1,723,400	200,800	2,399,400
Shanghai (local)	74,800	881,500	79,700	901,600	90,900	1,114,500	112,500	1,646,700
Anhwei	72,200	927,800	90,500	1,261,600	78,800	1,228,000	91,600	1,426,400
Chekiang	45,800	512,700	61,100	725,200	53,700	808,700	64,900	1,006,700
Fukien	41,400	714,400	43,800	733,900	27,600	438,100	32,000	549,100
Kwangtung	20,200	405,400	31,000	708,000	14,800	266,600	19,600	382,300
Kwangsi	5,600	140,500	7,200	187,500	4,400	96,700	5,800	127,500
Yunnan	14,500	403,800	21,500	630,800	8,400	188,000	16,800	453,000
Kweichow	6,600	157,600	9,400	272,300	5,900	140,200	9,100	241,500
Total	1,030,200	15,965,800	1,359,700	21,523,300	1,023,300	15,787,100	1,341,900	21,227,000

FOREIGN POST OFFICES IN CHINA

Great Britain

- Amoy
- Canton
- Chefoo
- Foochow
- Hankow
- Hoihow
- Ningpo
- Shanghai
- Swatow
- Tientsin
- Weihaiwei
- (Kashgar)

In Tibet: Gyantse; Phagri; Yatung

France

- Amoy
- Canton
- Chefoo
- Foochow
- Hankow
- Hoihow
- Kuangchouwan
- Mengtze
- Ningpo
- Pakhoi
- Peking
- Shanghai
- Tientsin
- Yunnanfu
- (Chungking)

Germany. (*Before the outbreak of war*).

- Amoy
- Canton
- Chefoo
- Chinkiang
- Foochow
- Hankow
- Kiaochou Territory
    - Tsingtao
    - Litsun
    - Sifang
    - Weihsien
- Nanking
- Peking
- Shanghai
- Swatow
- Tientsin
- Tsinanfu

Japan

- Amoy
- Canton
- Changsha
- Chefoo
- Chinkiang
- Foochow
- Hangchow
- Hankow
- Kiukiang
- Nanking
- Newchwang
- Peking
- Shanhaikuan
- Shasi
- Shanghai
- Soochow
- Swatow
- Tientsin
- Tongku
- Wuhu
- Kiaochou (*see above*)

Leased Territory:—Dairen, Port Arthur, Chinchow, Liüshutun, Pitzewo, Pulantien.

Manchuria:—Antung, Changchun, Changtu, Fenghuangcheng, Fushun, Haicheng, Hsinmintun (Sinminfu), Hsiunyocheng, Kaipingi, Kaiyuan, Kungchuling, Liaoyang, Mukden, Penhsiku, Suchiatun, Supingcheh, Takushan, Tashihchiao, Tatungkow, Tiehling, Tsaohokow, Wanfantien, Yentai.

Russia. (*Before the outbreak of war*)

- Anda
- Ashiho
- Buchatu
- Chalantun
- Chefoo
- Dalainor
- Ekho (Elho)
- Hailin (Khailine)
- Hailar (Khailar)
- Handaochezse
- Hankow
- Harbin
- Imianpo
- Kalgan
- Kuanchengtze
- Kuldja
- Manchouli
- Moulin
- Peking
- Pogranitschnaia
- Shanghai
- Taolaichao (Dalachao)
- Tchuguchak
- Tientsin
- Tsitsihar
- Urga
- Utsumi
- Yoman

United States

Shanghai

TELEGRAPHS

The Chinese telegraph system dates from December 24, 1881, when the line from Shanghai to Tientsin was officially opened. Prior to this two short lines—Shanghai to Woosung, and Tientsin to Taku—had been constructed under foreign and Chinese auspices respectively, and submarine cables were in operation at Shanghai and Hongkong. During 1882 the telegraph line was carried up the Yangtze Valley from Shanghai, at first to Chinkiang and Nanking, and by 1884 to Hankow.

The Chinese Telegraph Administration—a commercial undertaking started by Shen Kung-pao—was formed in April, 1882, under Government control, and took charge of all the Government lines. A second private company—the Wahop Company, formed in May, 1882—built a line from Canton to Kowloon (July, 1883), and connexion with Hongkong was made in January, 1884. In August, 1884, Peking was linked up with Tientsin. A line connecting Shanghai and Canton, built by the Government, was opened in October, 1884, and about the same time the Shanghai-Tientsin line was extended to Shanhaikuan and Paotingfu, with branches from Tsinanfu to Chefoo and Tsingtao. In 1897 a line across Mongolia from Kiakhta to Peking gave China land-telegraphic communication with Europe.

Telegraph conventions have been made with the four cable companies operating in China; with Russia and Japan regarding the Manchurian telegraph system; with Japan regarding the cables between Dairen and Chefoo and between Shanghai and Nagasaki; with Germany regarding the German cables connecting Shanghai, Tsingtao and Chefoo; with India and France regarding the connection at the Burmese and Indo-Chinese frontiers.

The cable companies operating in China are:—

1. The Great Northern Telegraph Co., Ltd., of Denmark.
2. The Eastern Extension, Australasia and China Telegraph Co., Ltd. (British).
3. The Commercial Pacific Cable Co. (American).
4. The Deutsch-Niederlandische Telegraphen Gesellschaft (German-Dutch).

By an agreement made in April, 1911, the Great Northern and Eastern Extension Companies advanced to the Chinese Telegraph Administration the sum of £500,000 for the immediate development of telegraphs and telephones in China. The foreign companies make half-yearly payments to the Chinese Telegraphs of a percentage of their revenue from foreign telegrams, and the advance was made against these payments for the next eighteen years, at 5 per cent interest; repayment of the loan and interest to be effected by thirty-six half-yearly instalments.

CHINESE GOVERNMENT TELEGRAPHS

Until 1908 the Chinese land-lines were operated by a Chinese company under Government control. In that year the Ministry of Communications took over all land-lines from the Company and the Provincial Governments. The Head Office of the Telegraph Administration remained at Shanghai until 1912, when it was transferred to the Telegraph Bureau of the Ministry of Communications. Wheatstone apparatus has been installed on the following circuits: Peking-Shanghai, Peking-Tientsin, Peking-Hankow, Tientsin-Shanghai, Tientsin-Mukden, Tientsin-Newchwang, Hankow-Canton, Hankow-Changsha, Hankow-Chungking, Chungking-Yunnanfu.

STATISTICS

Length of land-lines, 42,518 miles.
Submarine cables, 1,002·09 miles.
Underground cables, 102·53 miles.
Morse instruments in use, 1789.
Wheatstone instruments in use, 47.
Number of telegraph stations, 710.

Length and dates of construction of principal lines :—

Shanghai-Tientsin, 1025 m. (1882). Shanghai-Canton, 1820 m. (1882).
Hankow-Luchow, 1047 m. (1886). Sianfu-Peking, 964 m. (1890).
Peking-Kiachta, 1061 m. (1897). Shanghai-Hankow, 873 m. (1884).
Hankow-Peking, 974 m. (1910). Kiukiang-Canton, 988 m. (1884).

A report of the Ministry of Communications (1915) apportions the ownership of telegraph lines as follows (lengths in *li*=⅓ mile) :—

Province.	Government lines.	Private lines.	Province.	Government lines.	Private lines.
Anhui	1592	...	Kuangting	5646	1499
Chekiang	...	2793	Kueichow	450	...
Chihli	2947	3400	Manchuria	10,288	...
Fukien	144	2670	Mongolia	...	2124
Honan	...	3408	Peking District	...	697
Hunan	...	2769	Shansi	...	1669
Hupeh	...	5462	Shantung	1497	3709
Kanau	3085	...	Shensi	..	1104
Kiangsi	...	2669	Sinkiang-Ili	9956	...
Kiangsu	3302	434	Szechuan	2700	2874
Kuangsi	6045	...	Yunnan	6242	...

Telegraph Schools at: Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking, Wuchang, Yunnan, Nanning, Shengking, Lanchow, Didwha. Number of Students: 300.

Junctions with other systems at: Suikai, Tunghing, Hokow, Chennankwan, Manyün, Maimatchen, Tarcheng, Helampo, Hunchun, Shanghai, Chefoo, Tsingtao, Foochow, Amoy and Hongkong.

Tariff: Until 1912 the charges for telegrams varied from 10 cents (2½d.) per word for short distances to 68 cents (1s. 5d.) in China, and 80 cents in Mongolia. On June 1 a new internal tariff came into force. It is as follows :—

Telegrams in Foreign Languages—

To all places in the same Province, 9 cents per word.
To all other places in China, 18 cents per word.
Press telegrams (throughout China), 6 cents per word.

Telegrams in Chinese—

To all places in the same Province, 6 cents per word.
To all other places in China, 12 cents per word.
Press messages (throughout China), 3 cents per word.

At the end of 1912 the tariff for messages to all parts of Europe except Russia and the Caucasus was $2·20 (4s. 5d., or fcs. 5·50) per word, with half rates for press messages. It has been decided, however, by arrangement with the Eastern Extension and Great Northern Cable Companies to reduce the tariff from January 1, 1913, to 3s. 6d. or fcs. 4·40 per word, and to enforce a sliding scale by which the cost of cabling will be automatically reduced to a lower figure if the increase of traffic warrants it. Press messages, as usual, will be accepted at half rates. Deferred telegrams to most countries in Europe will continue to be transmitted at half the ordinary rates.

For Wireless Telegraphy *vide* page 106.

LIST OF TELEGRAPH STATIONS IN CHINA

1.—Shengking

Antung
Chang Pohfu
Changtufu
Chinchowfu
Fakumen
Fenghwangcheng
Fushunking
Haicheng
Hingkingfu
Hwaijenking
Ichow
Kaiyuan
Kungchuling
Liaoyang
Liaoyuanchow
Linkianghsien
Newchwang (Yingkow)
Shengking (Moukden)
Sinminfu (Hsinmintun)
Sinyen
Takushan
Taonanfu
Tatungkow
Tiehling
Tsian
Tunghwahsien
Tungkiangtze

2.—Kirin

Ashiho
Changchun (Kwanchengtze)
Chuimusze
Fukokin
Harbin
Hunchun
Itungchow
Kirin
Lahasusu
Ninguta
Nungan
Omusu
Petuna
Sansing
Shwangcheng
Siaochengtze
Sintienkir
Tehmoli
Yenkiting
Yushuhsien

3.—Heilungkiang

Aigun
Hailunting
Helampo or Hailar
Hulanfu
Murgun
Nahoting
Suihwafu
Tsitsihar

4.—Chihli

Changli
Chaoyangfu
Chengtehfu (Jehol)
Chengtingfu
Chihfeng
Chinwangtao
Hokienfu
Hwailai
Kaiping
Kalgan (Changkiakow)
Kalgan Kiaotung
Kaopeitien
Kaotsun
Kienchang
Kupehkow
Kwangpingfu
Liangkochwang
Lutai
Lwanchow
Machang
Paotingfu
Pehtaiho[1]
Peking
,, Chaosienkwan
,, Chuntzechu
,, Hsuehpu
,, Military Board
,, Minchenpu
,, Nanyuan
,, Naval Office
,, Nunkunshangpu
,, Taching Bank
,, Tsienmen
,, Tuchipu
,, Waiwupu
,, Yuchuanpu
Pingchuan
Potowchen
Shanhaikwan
Shihkiachwang (Chentow)
Shuntehfu
Siaochan
Süanhwafu
Taku
Tamingfu
Tangku
Tangshan
Tientsin
Tientsin Head Office
Tsangchow
Tsingsinghsien
Tungchowchi (Pehtungchow)
Weichangting
Yungpingfu
Yungtingho

5.—Honan

Changteho
Chengchow
Chowkiakow
Honanfu
Hsüchow
Hwaikingfu
Juchow
Kaifeng
Kingtzekwan
Kwangchow
Kweiteh
Lowanho
Nanyangfu
Shenchowho
Sintien[2]
Sinyangchow
Taokow
Tsinghwa
Weihwei
Wuan

6.—Shantung

Changi
Chefoo (Yentai)
Chengyang
Chowtsun
Hanchwang
Hukiaan
Hutowyai
Hwanghsien
Ichowfu
Kaomi
Kiachwang
Kiaochow
Küyehsien
Kwanchwangsung
Lokow
Lungkow
Poshan
Shaho
Shihlipu
Siangshansung
Taianfu
Taierhchwang
Takwokia
Taosü
Tehchow
Tengchowfu
Tiehtsiangchwang
Tsaochowfu
Tsaohsien
Tsiho
Tsimo
Tsinan
Tsinan Shangfow
Tsingchowfu
Tsingho
Tsingtau
Tsining
Tungchangfu
Wangchwang
Weihaiwei
Weihsien
Yangkiokow
Yenchowfu
Yünchenghsien

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[1] Opened in summer.

[2] Opened in summer. Telegraphic charges equivalent to the charges for telegrams for Hankow plus 10 cents per word extra.

7.—Shansi

Howma
Kihsiensha
Kweihwating
Niutu
Pingtingchow
Pingyao
Sinchowsha
Taikuhsien
Taiyuanfu
Tatungfoo

8.—Shensi

Kingyang
Lungchücha
Sanyuanhsien
Sianfu
Tungkwan

9.—Kansu

Ansi
Antingkan
Kanchowkan
Kingchowkan
Kuyuan
Lanchowfu
Liangchowfu
Ninganpao
Ningsiafu
Pingliang
Suchowkan

10.—Sinkiang

Hami
Hancheng
Ili (Kuldja
Kalasha
Kashgar
Kucheh
Kuchengsin
Maralbashi
Ningyuan
Suilai
Tahcheng
Tihwafu
Tsinghoting
Tulufan
Wensuh
Wusuting

11.—Szechwan

Chengtu
Chungking
Fowchowsze
Kiatingfu
Kweichowfu
Luchow
Ningyuanfu
Suifu
Tatsienlu
Tienkiang
Tsingkihsien
Tzechow
Wanhsien
Wushan
Yachowfu
Yuehsi
Yungchwan
Yungningsze

12.—Tibet

Chungtu
Lamaya
Litang
Patang

13.—Kueichow

Anshunfu
Chenyuan
Chungan
Hingi
Hwangtsaopa
Kiensichow
Kweiyang
Pichieh
Weining

14.—Hupeh

Anlu
Changyang
Chukiaho
Hankow
Hanyang
Haotzekow
Hwangchow
Ichang
Itu
Kingchowfu
Kingmen
Kwangshui
Kweichowhup
Laifeng
Laohokow
Lichwan
Maanshan
Miaoho
Paiyang
Patung
Puchi
Shayang
Shihnanfu
Siangyangfu
Siaokiaoyi
Sientaochen
Sinti
Tayeh
Teianfu
Tzechiu
Wuchang
Wusueh
Yanglowtung
Yunyang

15.—Hunan

Changsha
Changteh
Chenglingfow (Yochow Port)
Hengchowhun
Hungkiang
Kwangchowhun
Liling
Shenchowfu
Siangtan
Yiyanghun
Yochow
Yuanchowhun
Yungchowfu

16.—Kiangsi

Anjenki
Anyuan
Changshuki
Fuchowki
Hokowki
Hukow
Jaochow
Kanchowki
Kianfu
Kingtehchen
Kiukiang
Kuling[1]
Kwangsinfu
Loping
Nananfu
Nanchang
Pingsiangki
Tsinsicnhsien

17.—Anhui

Anking
Chengyangkwan
Chihchowfu
Fengyang
Liuanchow
Luchowfu
Ningkwofu
Pochow
Showchow
Taihu
Taipingan
Tatung
Wuhu
Yingchowfu
Yinkiahwei

18.—Kiangsu

Changchowku
Changshuku
Chentseh
Chinkiang
Chunghing
Chwansha
Fushan
Haichow
Hupukow
Hwaianfu
Ihing
Jukao
Kanyü
Kaoyuchow
Kiangyin
Liuhoku
Nanking
Panpu
Paoying
Pukow
Shanghai
Shanghai Arsenal
Shiherhwei
Shihtzeling
Siakowku
Siakwan
Siangshan
Siennüchen
Soochow
Süchowfu
Sungkiangfu
Sutsien
Taichowku
Tanyang
Tsingkiangpu
Tsingkow
Tsungming
Tungchow (Nantungchow)
Woosung
Woosung Fort
Wusih
Yangchowfu
Yaowan

19.—Chekiang

Chapu
Chinhai
Chüchowfu
Haimen
Hangchow
Hangchow Settlement
Huchowfu
Kashing
Kinhwafu
Lanchi
Mokanshan[2]
Nanzin
Ninghaihsien
Ningpo
Pinghu
Shaohingfu
Taichowfu
Tangsi
Tsinyun
Tunghianghsien
Wenchow
Yüyao

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[1] Opened in summer. Telegraphic charges equivalent to the charges for telegrams for Hangchow plus 10 cents per word extra.

[2] Opened in summer. Telegraphic charges equivalent to the charges for telegrams for Kuikiang plus 10 cents per word extra.

20.—Fukien

Amoy
Changchowfu
Chaoan
Chüanchowfu(Chinchow)
Foochow
Foochow City
Hankong
Kienningfu
Mamoi (Pagoda)
Pucheng
Santuao
Sharp Peak
Shuikow
White Fort
Yenpingfu

21.—Kuangtung

Canton
Chaochowfu
Chongkong
Chütowshan
Fachow
Fatshan
Fongshing
Fumoon
Heungshan
Hoifung
Hoihow
Hongkong
Kaying
Kiungchow
Kochow
Kongmoon
Limchowfu
Lingshan
Luichow
Lukuk
Moli
Muiling
Naleung
Nali
Namyung
Onpo
Pakhoi
Pakong
Paksha
Sainam
Shakok Fort
Shameen
Sheklung
Shekshing
Shiuchow
Shiuhing
Shuitung
Shumshuipo
Siutung
Suikai
Sunchong
Sunon
Suntong
Swatow
Takhing
Tsuimen
Tsungkow
Tunghing
Waichow
Weiyun Fort
Whampoa
Wushek
Yamchow
Yanping
Yeungkong
Yingtak
Yutshing
Yutung

22.—Kuangsi

Chaoping
Chenpien
Chüanchow
Chungtusi
Fuchwanhsien
Hengchow
Hingan
Hingyeh
Kiangkowsi
Kiangyuan
Kungchenghsien
Kweihsien
Kweilin
Kweishun
Kwohwa
Laipinhsien
Liuchowfu
Lochu
Luchai
Luhfeng
Lungchow
Lungon
Lungpang
Nankwan
Nanning
Patpo
Pinchowsi
Pinglo
Pingma
Pingmeng
Pingnamyun
Pingsiang
Poseh
Sheungsze
Shihlung
Shuikowsi
Siatung
Taipingsi
Tamchow (Sünchow)
Tengyün
Tolu
Tsienkiang
Watlam (Yülin)
Wingshun
Wuchow
Yungfu

23.—Yunnan

Anpingting
Chaotung
Hokow
Kaihwafu
Kokinchang
Kütsingfu
Kwangnanfu
Likiang
Linanfu
Malipo
Hwanglienpu
Poyai
Puerhfu
Manhao
Manyün
Mengtsz
Pihsechai
Szemao
Talang
Talifu
Puting
Süanwei

Tengyueh
Tsinglungchang
Tsuyung
Tungchwan
Tunghai
Yungchang
Yunnanfu

24.—Mongolia

Maimaicheng (Kiachta)
Pangkiang
Taonan
Tuerin
Udde
Urga (Kulun)

CHAPTER XIV

THE GOVERNMENT

To enable the reader to understand the tangle of Chinese politics that prevailed during 1918 it is necessary to summarise the constitutional developments since the inauguration of the Republic.

THE Government of China is now operated nominally under the Provisional Constitution of 1911, a document drafted in Nanking towards the end of 1911 and promulgated in Peking on March 10, 1912 (see p. 312). This Constitution made provision for a Provisional President and Vice-President and for a National Council, which was to exercise legislative power until a regular Parliament could be convened in accordance with laws which the Council was to enact.

Acting under the authority of the Provisional Constitution the National Council enacted the necessary laws, and a Parliament, comprising a Senate (*Ts'an Yi Yuan*) and a House of Representatives (*Chung Yi Yuan*), was duly elected. This Parliament was opened in April, 1913. The members of the Lower House were to serve for three years, the members of the Senate for six years, one-third retiring every two years. In addition to being the national legislature of the Republic, Parliament was to elect the President and Vice-President, and to act as a constituent body to draft and promulgate a permanent Constitution.

A Presidential Election Law, embodying the sections of the Constitution dealing with the election and term of office of the President, was passed by October 4, 1913, and the election took place two days later. Yuan Shih-kai, the Provisional President, was elected President, to hold office for a period of five years, and Li Yuan-hung became Vice-President.

On November 4, 1913, the President ordered the immediate dissolution of the Kuomintang political party. The effect of this step was to unseat more than half the members of the Parliament and to deprive it of the quorum necessary for the transaction of business. On January 10, 1914, Parliament was formally suspended. A series of measures were then enacted by Yuan Shih-kai with a view to strengthening and consolidating the central executive power. The first of these was the creation of a Political Council, the members of which were appointed by himself. This body recommended the President to call into being an elected assembly, and on March 18, 1914, the first session of the Constitutional Council was held in Peking. Within six weeks the Council had drawn up the "Constitutional Compact," or Amended Provisional Constitution of the Republic of China, providing for an elected House of Legislature (*Lifayuan*) and a Council of State (*Tsanchengyuan*) to advise the President on all matters on which he consults it. The Lifayuan was never elected, but the Council of State sat in the capacity of the Lifayuan during 1914 and 1915.

In the summer of 1915 a movement began in favour of the re-establishment of a monarchy. A Convention of Citizens' Representatives was summoned to decide the question, and voted unanimously for the establishment of a Constitutional monarchy, with Yuan Shih-kai as Emperor. Before the enthronement could take place a rebellion in Yunnan had assumed too serious proportions to make such a step prudent, and a mandate of February 23, 1916, postponed the date of the accession indefinitely.

On June 6, 1916, Yuan Shih-kai died. Vice-President Li Yuan-hung succeeded to the Presidency, and all Yuan Shih-kai's measures were regarded as null and void. The Parliament which had been dissolved in 1913 was convened (August, 1916), and the Provisional Constitution of 1912 was again recognised as the fundamental law of the Republic. The re-established Parliament entered upon a consideration of a draft of a Permanent Constitution which had been drawn up in 1913 by a drafting committee of its own members. But friction between the parliamentary party, representing South China, and the militarists of the North supervened, and acting under the pressure of the Tuchuns (Military Governors), Li Yuan-hung in June, 1917, dissolved the first Parliament of the Republic for the second time.

With the idea of gaining support in his struggle with the Military Governors the President invited to Peking General Chang Hsun, a former pillar of the Manchu Dynasty, who since the fall of Nanking in 1911 had maintained himself in a semi-independent position in southern Shantung. Acting on his own accord General Chang Hsun decided to cut the Gordian knot by restoring the Manchu Dynasty, and on July 1, 1916, an edict appeared in the name of the young Emperor Hsuan Tung, announcing his resumption to the throne. At the same time the appointment of a complete Ministry, with Chang Hsun at the head, was published. The new Government found itself confronted with opposition on every side ; many even of the Northern military chiefs failed it Li Yuan-hung had vacated the Presidency, appointed the Vice-President to act in his stead, and ordered Tuan Chi-jui to resume the Premiership. Troops loyal to the Republic at once began to march on Peking, and on July 7, after having reigned one week, the Emperor announced his abdication. Some fighting followed, but the monarchist troops were surrounded and disarmed, Chung Hsun himself taking refuge in the Dutch Legation.

The Republican Ministry under Tuan Chi-jui returned to power and Feng Kuo-chang remained acting President. The North, however, took no steps to conciliate the Southerners and the breach between the two parties widened. The accepted constitutional theory in Peking at this time was that, with the dissolution of Parliament, the situation reverted to the one which had existed in 1912, immediately after the promulgation of the Provisional Constitution and before the National Council had been replaced by a regular Parliament. Feng Kuo-chang accordingly convened a Council for the purpose of drafting new laws for the election of a new Parliament, and in accordance with the laws thus enacted (in February, 1918), which differed materially from the laws passed by the National Council in 1912, a new Parliament was elected. The opening session was held in August, 1918, and on September 4 the ex-Premier, Hsu Shih-chang, was elected President of the Republic. Party faction prevented the election of a Vice-President.

The Peking reading of the situation did not satisfy Southern China or the members of the old Parliament, who had been a second time unseated. These were summoned to meet in Canton and to constitute the real representative body of the Republic. During the summer of 1918 a quorum of the old Parliament was obtained, and for the rest of the year China had two Parliaments—the one sitting at Peking, the other at Canton—each subscribing to the Provisional Constitution and claiming to be the sole legal legislative body of the Republic. The case of the Southerners or Constitutionalists was set forth in a manifesto (August, 1918), addressed "to the Foreign Powers," asking for "support of their righteous cause and for the recognition of the Military Government." The document said *inter alia* :—

"Ever since the illegal dissolution of Parliament, more than thirteen months ago, the Constitutionalists have not ceased to demand the reconvocation of Parliament. . . . They believe that the constitution of the Republic, as the supreme law of the land, should be sacred and inviolable. They believe that even if Parliament, a new institution in this country, shows room for improvement, the changes should be made according to the due process of law, and not be accomplished by an arbitrary dissolution dictated by Generals supported by bayonets. . . . With these beliefs they have made repeated representation to Peking to reconvoke the dissolved Parliament in order thus to uphold the sanctity of the law. So far from paying heed to those representations, the Peking Government has established an illegal single-chambered legislature composed entirely of members appointed by itself and has ordered it to remake laws for parliamentary organization and election. . . . Finding argument and reason to be of no avail, the Constitutionalists have been compelled to the regrettable necessity of resorting to arms, since the militarists appear not to understand any argument save that of force. . . . Besides the adhesion of the most powerful portion of the Navy, the Constitutionalists are in complete control of five rich and populous provinces—Kuangtung, Kuangsi, Yunnan, Kueichow, and Szechuan—which have declared their independence, while in others, such as Hunan, Hupeh, Fukien, Shantung, Honan, Shensi, and Chekiang, there are Constitutionalist armies in the field who are in possession of large portions of territory, or there are local sympathisers who have already declared their adhesion to the good cause with cities and districts, or are ready to do so at the first opportunity. . . . Perceiving the necessity for the formation of an effective and united Government of the Constitutionalist Provinces and Forces, Parliament sitting in extraordinary session on May 18, 1918, at Canton, reconstituted directors of the new Government. The purpose of the Military Government is not to bring about separation or secession, but to uphold the cause of Constitutionalism and the principle of legalism. It is fighting to make China safe for democracy."

This Manifesto was signed by the following :—

Wu Ting-fang,	Administrative	Director	and	Minister of	Foreign Affairs.
Tsen Chun-hsuan	,,	,,	,,	,,	the Interior.
Tang Chi-yao	,,	,,	,,	Chief of the General Staff.	
Lu Yung-ting	,,	,,	,,	Minister for War.	
Lin Pao-yi	,,	,,	,,	Minister of the Navy.	
Sun Yat-sen	,,	,,			
Tang Shao-yi	,,	,,			

Analysing the situation thus created, Dr. W. W. Willoughby, Professor of Political Science at the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, and at one time Legal Adviser to the Chinese Government, wrote (in *The Far Eastern Review*): "Tested by the Provisional Constitution and the laws enacted pursuant to its provisions, neither the Peking nor the Canton Parliament is a legal body. And it results from this that President Hsu Shih-chang's title to office is defective. The Canton Parliament has not seen fit, or has not been able, to elect a President, but has contented itself with recognizing a so-called Administrative Directorate of the Military Government as its acting executive. No pretence, however, is made that the Provisional Constitution gives authority for the establishment of such an agency."

Throughout the whole of 1918 desultory fighting had been taking place between "North" and "South," the chief provinces affected being Hunan, Szechuan, Kiangsi, Fukien, and Hupeh. The inability of the Northern party to make any headway in the campaign, the financial embarrassment of both sides, and the growing dissatisfaction with a state of affairs that promised to lead nowhere, were at last responsible for an attempt to find a *modus vivendi* for the two factions, and the President proclaimed an armistice when the news of the armistice in Europe reached China. Towards the end of 1918 it was agreed that a peace conference should be held. A controversy arose over the place of meeting, but eventually it was decided that the northern and southern delegates should deliberate in the native city of Shanghai (February, 1919).

LIST OF HIGHER OFFICIALS[1]

PRESIDENT: Hsu Shih-chang.
VICE-PRESIDENT: Vacant (January, 1919).
PREMIER: Chien Nung-hsun.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

GENERAL STAFF.

Chief of Staff: Yin Chang.
Assistant Chief: Tang Shan-lin.
Heads of Departments: Lin Yi-ch'ing, Lai Shu-yung, Chang Lien-feng, Yao Jen-chih, Shih Chiu-kuang, Huang Mao-sun, Hsieh Kang-chih.

MINISTRIES

WAI CHIAO PU (Foreign Affairs).

Minister: Lu Tseng-hsiang.
Vice-Minister: Cheng Loh.
Councillors: Yuan Ke-hsuan, Yen Hawk-Ling, Tchang Tsou-seng, Wu Chao-chu.

NEI WU PU (Interior).

Minister: Chien Nung-hsun.
Vice-Ministers: Jung Hsun, Sun Ming-chang.
Councillors: Chang Yu-tung, Ku Ao, Sun P'ei, Wong Fa-Wei.

TS'AI CHENG PU (Finance).

Minister: Kung Hsing-chan.
Vice-Ministers: Kung Seng-ting, Chang Shou-lin.
Councillors: Hsiang Jang, Li Shih-hsi, Yu Hsi-cheng, Kia Shih-yi, Huang Tsin.

LU CHUN PU (War).

Minister: Chin Yun-p'eng.
Vice-Ministers: Chiang Tso-pin, Hsu Shu-tsen.
Councillors: Wu Chao-lin, Ch'en K'uan-hang, Lin Shih, Ting King.

HAI CHUN PU (Navy).

Minister: Liu Kuang-hsiung.
Vice-Minister: Tsao Chia-hsiang.
Councillors: Liu Shan-sho, Wu Chen-nan, Hsu Shing-tsang.

SSU FA PU (Justice).

Minister: Chu Hsun.
Vice-Minister: Chiang Yung.
Councillors: Yu Shao-sung, Lin Tse-chun, Tang Te-chiao, Ho Yi-lu.

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[1] The list that follows has been corrected to date as far as possible. Changes made while the Year Book is being printed will be incorporated in the Preface.

CHIAO YÜ PU (Education).

Minister: Fu Tseng Siang.
Vice-Minister: Liang Shan-chi.
Councillors: Shu Shou-chang, Tang Chung, Tan Shou-kwun.

NUNG SHANG PU (Agriculture and Commerce).

Minister: Tien Wen-lieh.
Vice-Minister: Ching Pan-ping.
Councillors: Liu Fu, Chin Jui-chia, Chang Sin-wu, Hsia Shing-kai.

CHIAO T'UNG PU (Communications).

Minister: Tsao Ju-lin.
Vice-Minister: Tsen Yu-chin.
Councillors: Lu Meng-hsiung, Ho Chi-tsun, Chuan Liang, Liu Kwun-yu.

BUREAUX, ETC.

DEPARTMENT FOR MONGOLIA AND TIBET.

Director: Kung Sang-no-erh-pu (Prince Kalachin).
Assistant-Director: Hsi Yen.
Councillors: Chen Yi, Wen Pin.
Secretary: Ma Wei-lung.
Senior Clerks: Tang Yen-pao, Ho Wen-tien, Lu Ting-ching.

SUN CHI CHU (Board of Audit).

President: Sun Pao-chi.
Vice-President: Hsu En-yuan.
Heads of Departments: Yen Ao-ke, Chang Jun-lin, Shan-ching.

SHUI WU CHU (Revenue Council).

Director-General: Liang Shi-yi.
Deputy Director-General: Ts'ai T'ing-kan.

BUREAU OF PRINTING AND ENGRAVING.

Director: Wu Chi-sun.

COMMISSION FOR CODIFICATION OF LAWS.

President: Ku Ao.
Compilers: Chou Hsien-ting, Chu Te-chang, Nieh Kai-chi, Liu-shang.

DEPARTMENT OF TELEGRAPHS.

Director-General: Chou Kia-ni.
Chief of Department: Ho Yuan-han.

DEPARTMENT OF RAILWAYS.

Director: Keng Lin-kuan.

STANDING COMMITTEE ON THE UNIFICATION OF RAILWAY ACCOUNTS AND STATISTICS.

Chairman: Kung Chao-yih.
Vice-Chairman: Ching Chun-wang.

Provincial Administration

Under the Manchus Imperial authority in the provinces was represented by Viceroys (Tsung Tu) and Governors (Hsün Fu). As a general rule the Viceroy exercised authority over two or more provinces, and had one or more Governors under him. The only single Viceroyalties were the provinces of Chihli and Szechuan. The following were the Viceroyalties up to the time of the Revolution :—

Viceroyalty.	*Provinces under its Jurisdiction.*
Manchuria	Fengtien, Kirin, and Heilungkiang.
Chihli	Chihli.
Liangkiang (Nanking)	Kiangsu, Anhui, and Kiangsi.
Shen-Kan	Shensi, Kansu, and Sinkiang (Turkestan).
Min-Che	Fukien and Chekiang.
Hu-Kuang	Hupeh and Hunan.
Szechuan	Szechuan.
Liang-Kuang	Kuangtung and Kuangsi.
Yun-Kuei	Yunnan and Kueichow.

There were Governors of every province except Fengtien, Chihli, Kansu, Fukien, Hupeh, Szechuan, Kuangtung and Yunnan, where the Viceroys exercised immediate control.

Next to the Viceroy and Governor the most important Provincial Officials were the Provincial Treasurer (*Fan Tai*); Commissioner for Foreign Affairs (*Chiao She-shih*); Commissioner of Justice (*Ti Fa-shih*); Tartar General (*Chiang Chün*); Commissioner of Education (*T'i Hsueh-shih*), the Salt Commissioner and the Grain Intendant.

Every province was divided into prefectures (*Fu*), Departments and sub-prefectures (*Chow* and *Ting*); and Districts (*Hsien*). The *Hsien* was the administrative unit, each *Fu*, *Chow* and *Ting* being composed of several *Hsien.*

As the Revolution of 1911 spread, the Viceroys and Governors were succeeded by *Tutuhs* (Military Governors), some of whom were elected by the Provincial Assemblies, while others took up the post by virtue of their prominence as revolutionary leaders. In almost every case, however, the *Tutuh* was a native of the province in contradistinction to the old Manchu policy of never allowing an official of high rank to hold office in his own province.

With the inauguration of the Republic, further changes in the provincial administration were made. In most of the provinces the *Tutuhs*, after being confirmed in their rank by the President, continued to fulfil all the duties which had previously been undertaken by Imperial Viceroys and Governors. In some provinces, however, an attempt was made from an early stage to separate the civil and the military power, the former being placed in the hands of Civil Administrators (*Min Cheng Chang*). In 1914 the titles were again altered. The Military Governor became the *Chiangchun*, and the Civil Governor *Hsün-An-Shih*, but not all the provinces had both. The *Chiangchun* was nominally the

Commander-in-Chief of a military district. On the death of Yuan Shih-kai a further change of nomenclature followed, the Military Governors being styled *Tuchun,* a word formed by taking the first syllable of ***Tutuh*** and the last of *Chiangchun.*

On February 28, 1914, the Provincial Assemblies were dissolved by mandate and the Provincial Authorities were made responsible for the government of the provinces. A new system of Provincial Administration was promulgated on May 23, 1914. Administrative power was vested in the Civil Governor (*Hsün An Shih*), appointed by the President, who was placed in control of the civil officials of the province as well as the defence and precautionary troops. He was to be assisted by four Chiefs of Administrative Departments, dealing respectively with General Affairs, Interior, Education and Industry. Each province was divided into a number of circuits (*Tao*) under a *Taoyin;* each circuit into a number of districts (*Hsien*) under a magistrate, who is district administrative chief under the Taoyin. Military affairs in the provinces were to be under the control of Chiangchün, or Military Governors, in command of military districts which might or might not be limited to the boundaries of a single province. The Chiangchün was to have no civil power, but in practice he occasionally became Acting Civil Governor as well. The rule that obtained under the Manchu Dynasty that no native could be a civil official in his own province was re-established.

On the death of Yuan Shih-kai the Provisional Assemblies once more came into being.

PROVINCIAL OFFICIALS

Chinese Terms—	*English Equivalents—*
Tuchun	Military Governor.
Hsün-an-Shih	Civil Governor.

ANHUI.

Tuchun: Ni Szu-chung.

CHEKIANG.

Tuchun: Yang Shan-lin (Yan Shan-teh).
Civil Governor: Hsu Yao-lien.

CHIHLI.

Civil Governor: Tsao Kun.

FENGTIEN.

Tuchun: Chang Tso-ling

FUKIEN.

Civil Governor: Li Hou-chi.

HEILUNGKIANG.

Tuchun: Pao Kuei-Ching.

HONAN.
Tuchun: Chao Te.
Civil Governor: Tien Wen-lieh.

HUNAN.
Tuchun: Chang Ching-yao.
Civil Governor: Tan Yien Ka.

HUPEH.
Tuchun: Wang Tsan-yuan.
Civil Governor: Tuan Shu-yun.

KANSU.
Civil Governor: Yang Tseng-hsin.

KIANGSI.
Tuchun: Chen Kuang-yuan.
Civil Governor: Chi Yang.

KIANGSU.
Tuchun: Li Shun.
Civil Governor: Chi Yao-lin.

KIRIN.
Tuchun: Meng En-yuan.

KUANGSI.
Tuchun: Tan Hao-min.
Civil Governor: Liu Cheng-en.

KUANGTUNG.
Civil Governor: Li Yao-han.

KUEICHOW.
Civil Governor: Liu Hsien-shih.

SHANSI.
Tuchun: Yen Hsi-shan.
Civil Governor: Ching Yun.

SHANTUNG.
Tuchun: Chang Huai-chih.

SHENSI.
Tuchun: Cheng Shu-fan.

SINKIANG.
Tuchun: Yang Tseng-hsin.

SZECHUAN.
Tuchun: Chow Tao-kang.

YUNNAN.
Tuchun: Tang Chi-yao.
Civil Governor: Chen Ko-ching.

CHINESE LEGATIONS AND CONSULATES

GREAT BRITAIN.

Minister: Sao-Ke Alfred Sze.
Councillor: Sir John McLeavy Brown, C.M.G.
1*st Secretary :* Tsung-Yee Lo.
2*nd Secretary :* Yungsiang Tsao.
3*rd Secretary :* Lao Yu-cheng.

Singapore :
Consul-General: Lo Chong.
Vice-Consul: Feng Mien.

Canada :
Consul-General: Yang Shu-wen.
Vice-Consul : Chao Chung-tang.

Melbourne :
Consul-General: Ouei Tze-king.
Vice-Consul : Lu Ping-tien.

New Zealand :
Consul: Lin Shih-yuan.

Rangoon :
Consul: Chew Kok-hean.

Vancouver :
Consul: Yih Ko-liang.

Penang :
Consul: Tai Pei-yuan.

British North Borneo :
Consul-General: Yu Yeu-fan.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

BELGIUM.

Minister : Wei Cheng-tsu.
Chargé d'Affaires : Yo Chao-chu.
2*nd Secretary :* Wang Mou-tao.
3*rd Secretary :* Chow Yi-tao.

CUBA.

Chargé d'Affaires : Chen Ku.
Vice-Consul : Liao En-tao.

DENMARK.

Officiating Minister : W. W. Yen.
1*st Secretary :* Dih Ching-sun.

FRANCE.

Minister : Hoo Wei-teh.
1*st Secretary :* Yo Chao-chu.
2*nd Secretary :* Chang Yuan-chieh.
3*rd Secretary :* King Fu-chung.

GERMANY.

[Apia, Samoa:
Consul: Lin Yun-chiu.]

ITALY.

Minister: Wang Kuang-chi.
2nd Secretary: Li Shang-hsien.
3rd Secretary: Wang Tseng-se.

JAPAN.

Minister: Chung Chung-hsiang.
Chargé d'Affaires: Liu Chung-chieh.
1st Secretary: Sun Sheng-yu.
2nd Secretary: Chow Yu-ching.

Yokohama:
Consul: Wang Shao-shan.
Vice-Consul: Chiang Hung-chieh.

Kobe:
Consul: Chi Ching.

Nagasaki:
Consul: Hoo Nai-tai.

Seoul:
Consul-General: Fu Shu-ying.
Consul: Huang Chung-lin.

Chemulpo:
Consul: Chang Kuo-wei.

Fusan:
Consul: Ku Hung-li.

Chingihsu:
Consul: Hsu Tung-fan.

Yuensan:
Vice-Consul: Ma Yung-fa.

Chinampu:
Vice-Consul: Chang Kuo-wei.

MEXICO.

Minister: Feng Hsiang-kuan.
Chargé d'Affaires: Wu Chung-ping.

THE NETHERLANDS.

Minister: Tang Tsai-fu.
2nd Secretary: Chen Chung-hsun.
3rd Secretary: Huang Su-hsiung.

Java.
Consul-General: Ao Yang-chi.

Sourabaya (Java):
Consul: Tang Tsai-chih.

Padang:
Consul: Yu Yiu-fan.

PERU.
Officiating Minister:
2nd Councillor and Chargé d'Affaires: Wu Chung-ling.

BRAZIL.
Officiating Minister: Hsia Yi-ding.
2nd Councillor and Chargé d'Affaires: Ling Tung-shi.

PORTUGAL.
Officiating Minister: Tai Chen-ling.
2nd Councillor and Chargé d'Affaires: Kuo Chia-chi.

RUSSIA.
Minister: Liou Tsine-jen.
1st Secretary: Cheng Yen-hsi.
2nd Secretary: Li Hsu-chung.
3rd Secretary: Chen Kuan-ping.

Vladivostok.
Consul-General: Li Chia-Ao.
Vice-Consul: Pi Wen-chi.

SIAM.
Resident Commissioner: Yao Chi-fang.

SPAIN.
Minister: Tai Chen-ling.
2nd Secretary: Sun Chang-yuen.
3rd Secretary: Ho Loh-chih.

SWEDEN.
Chargé d' Affaires: Tchou Tchoueu-han.

SWITZERLAND.
Minister; Wang Yung-pao.

UNITED STATES.
Minister: V. K. Wellington Koo.
1st Secretary and Councillor: Yung Kwai.
2nd Secretary: Yeh Ko-liang.
3rd Secretary:

San Francisco:
Consul-General: Hsu Shang-ching.
Vice-Consul: Tan Hsiao-Hsu.

Manila:
Consul-General: Kwei Chih.
Vice-Consul: Lin Pao-heng.

Panama :

Consul-General : Feng Hsiang-kwan.
Vice-Consul : Chow Chung-Yo.

New York :

Consul : Yang Yu-ying.

Honolulu :

Consul : Wu Huang.

THE PROVISIONAL CONSTITUTION

On March 10, 1912, the National Council at Nanking adopted the following Provisional Constitution :—

I.—GENERAL PROVISIONS

ARTICLE 1.—The Republic of China is established by the Chinese people.

ARTICLE 2.—The sovereignty of the Chinese Republic is vested in the whole body of the people.

ARTICLE 3.—The territory of the Chinese Republic consists of the twenty-two provinces, Inner and Outer Mongolia, Tibet and Chinghai [Kokonor].

ARTICLE 4.—The sovereignty of the Chinese Republic is exercised by the National Council, the Provisional President, the Cabinet, and the Judiciary.

II.—CITIZENS

ARTICLE 5.—Citizens of the Chinese Republic are all equal, and there shall be no racial class or religious distinctions.

ARTICLE 6.—Citizens shall enjoy the following rights :—

(1) No citizen shall be arrested, imprisoned, tried or punished except in accordance with Law.

(2) The habitation of any citizen shall not be entered or searched except in accordance with Law.

(3) Citizens shall enjoy the right of the security of their property and the freedom of trade.

(4) Citizens shall have the freedom of speech, of publication, of association.

(5) Citizens shall have the right of the secrecy of their letters.

(6) Citizens shall have the liberty of residence and removal.

(7) Citizens shall have the freedom of religion.

ARTICLE 7.—Citizens shall have the right to petition Parliament.

ARTICLE 8.—Citizens shall have the right of petitioning the executive officials.

ARTICLE 9.—Citizens shall have the right to institute proceedings before the Judiciary, and to receive trial and judgment

ARTICLE 10.—Citizens shall have the right of suing officials in the Administrative Courts for violation of the law or of their rights.

ARTICLE 11.—Citizens shall have the right of participating in examinations for official posts.

ARTICLE 12.—Citizens shall have the right to vote and of standing for election to representative assemblies.

ARTICLE 13.—Citizens shall have the duty of paying taxes according to Law.

ARTICLE 14.—Citizens shall have the duty of enlisting as soldiers according to Law.

ARTICLE 15.—The rights of citizens as provided in the present chapter shall be limited or modified by laws provided such limitation or modification shall be deemed necessary for the promotion of public welfare, for the maintenance of public order or upon other urgent necessity.

III.—THE NATIONAL COUNCIL (TS'AN YI-YUAN)

ARTICLE 16.—The legislative power of the Chinese Republic is exercised by the National Council.

ARTICLE 17.—The National Council shall be composed of members elected by the several districts as provided in Article 18.

ARTICLE 18.—The Provinces, Inner and Outer Mongolia, and Tibet shall each elect and depute five members to the National Council, and Chinghai (Kokonor) shall elect one member.

The electoral districts and methods of election shall be decided by the localities concerned.

During the meeting of the National Council each member shall have one vote.

ARTICLE 19.—The National Council shall have the following powers:—

(1) To pass all laws.

(2) To pass the budgets of the Provisional Government.

(3) To pass measures of taxation, of currency, and of weights and measures for the whole country.

(4) To pass measures for the incurring of public loans and to conclude agreements affecting the National Treasury.

(5) To give consent to matters provided in Articles 34, 35, and 40.

(6) To reply to inquiries from the Provisional Government.

(7) To receive and consider petitions of citizens.

(8) To make suggestions to the Government on laws or other matters.

(9) To introduce interpellations to the members of the Cabinet and to insist on their being present in the Council in making replies thereto.

(10) To insist on Government investigation into any alleged bribery and infringement of laws by officials.

(11) To impeach the Provisional President, if he be held to have acted as a traitor by a majority vote of three-fourths of the members present with a quorum of more than four-fifths of the total number of members.

(12) To impeach any member of the Cabinet, if he be held to have failed to perform his official duties or to have violated the law by a

majority vote of two-thirds of the members present with a quorum of over three-fourths of the total number of members.

ARTICLE 20.—The National Council may itself convoke, conduct, and adjourn its own meetings.

ARTICLE 21.—The meetings of the National Council shall be conducted publicly, but meetings may be held *in camera* at the demand of any member of the Cabinet or of a majority vote.

ARTICLE 22.—Matters passed by the National Council shall be communicated to the Provisional President for promulgation and execution.

ARTICLE 23.—If the Provisional President should veto matters passed by the National Council, he shall, within ten days after he receives such resolutions, return the same with stated reasons to the Council for reconsideration. If the same matter should again be passed by a two-thirds vote of the Council, it shall be dealt with in accordance with Article 22.

ARTICLE 24.—The President of the National Council shall be elected by open ballot of the voting members, and the one who receives more than one-half of the total number of the votes cast shall be elected.

ARTICLE 25.—Members of the National Council shall not, outside the Council hall, be responsible for their opinions expressed and votes cast in the Council.

ARTICLE 26.—Members of the Council shall not be arrested without the permission of the President of the Council except for flagrant offences or during internal disturbance or foreign invasion.

ARTICLE 27.—The procedure of the National Council shall be decided by its own members.

ARTICLE 28.—The National Council shall be dissolved on the day of the convocation of the National Assembly, and its powers shall be exercised by the latter.

IV.—THE PROVISIONAL PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT

ARTICLE 29.—The Provisional President and Vice-President shall be elected by the National Council, by vote of two-thirds of the members present at a sitting of the Council consisting of over three-fourths of the total number of members.

ARTICLE 30.—The Provisional President represents the Provisional Government as the fountain of all executive powers and promulgates all laws.

ARTICLE 31.—The Provisional President may issue or cause to be issued orders for the execution of laws and of powers delegated to him by the law.

ARTICLE 32.—The Provisional President shall be the commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the whole of China.

ARTICLE 33.—The Provisional President shall ordain and establish the administrative system and official regulations, but he must first submit them to the National Council for its approval.

ARTICLE 34.—The Provisional President shall appoint and remove civil and military officials, but in the appointment of members of the

Cabinet, Ambassadors, and Ministers, he must have the concurrence of the National Council.

ARTICLE 35.—The Provisional President shall have power, with the concurrence of the National Council, to declare war and conclude treaties.

ARTICLE 36.—The Provisional President may, in accordance with law, declare a state of siege.

ARTICLE 37.—The Provisional President shall, representing the whole country, receive Ambassadors and Ministers of foreign countries.

ARTICLE 38.—The Provisional President may introduce Bills into the National Council.

ARTICLE 39.—The Provisional President may confer decorations and other insignia of honour.

ARTICLE 40.—The Provisional President may declare general amnesty, grant special pardon, commute a punishment, and restore rights, but in the case of a general amnesty he must have the concurrence of the National Council.

ARTICLE 41.—In case the Provisional President is impeached by the National Council, he shall be tried by a special court consisting of nine judges elected among the justices of the supreme court of the realm.

ARTICLE 42.—If the Provisional President vacates his office from any cause, or is unable to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the Provisional Vice-President shall attend to his duties.

V.—MINISTERS OF STATE

ARTICLE 43.—The Premier and the heads of the Government Departments shall be called Ministers.

ARTICLE 44.—Ministers of State shall assist the Provisional President in assuming responsibilities.

ARTICLE 45.—Ministers of State shall countersign all Bills introduced by the Provisional President and all laws and orders issued by him.

ARTICLE 46.—Ministers of State and their deputies may be present and speak in the National Council.

ARTICLE 47.—If any Minister of State is impeached by the National Council, the Provisional President may remove him from office, but such removal shall be subject to the reconsideration of the National Council.

VI.—COURTS OF JUSTICE

ARTICLE 48.—The Judiciary shall be composed of judges appointed by the Provisional President and the Minister of Justice.

The organization of the courts and the qualifications of judges shall be determined by law.

ARTICLE 49.—The Judiciary shall try civil and criminal cases, but cases involving administrative affairs or arising from other particular causes, shall be dealt with according to special laws.

ARTICLE 50.—The trial of cases in the law courts shall be conducted publicly, but those affecting public safety and order may be held *in camera.*

ARTICLE 51.—Judges shall be independent and shall not be subject to the interference of higher officials.

ARTICLE 52.—Judges during their continuance in office shall not have their emoluments decreased and shall not be transferred to other offices, nor shall they be removed from office except when they are convicted of crimes, or of offences punishable according to law by removal from office.

Regulations for the punishment of judges shall be determined by law.

VII.—ANNEX

ARTICLE 53.—Within ten months after the promulgation of this Provisional Constitution the Provisional President shall convene a National Assembly, the organization of which and the laws for the election of whose members shall be decided by the National Council.

ARTICLE 54.—The Constitution of the Republic of China shall be adopted by the National Assembly, but before the promulgation of the Constitution the Provisional Constitution shall have the same force as the Constitution itself.

ARTICLE 55.—The Provisional Constitution may be amended by the assent of three-fourths of the members of the National Council present at a quorum of two-thirds of the whole number ; or upon the application of the Provisional President by a majority vote of three-fourths at a quorum of the Council of four-fifths of the total number of its members.

ARTICLE 56.—The present Provisional Constitution shall take effect on the date of its promulgation, and the fundamental articles for the organization of the Provisional Government shall cease to be effective on the same date.

Sealed by
THE NATIONAL COUNCIL.

March 10, 1912, 1st year of the Republic of China.

CHAPTER XV

DEFENCE

THE ARMY[1]

MINISTRY OF WAR (*Lu Chün Pu*)

THE official system of the Ministry of War, promulgated on August 31, 1912, reads as follows :—

1. The Minister of War shall have control of all military affairs and forces, and all quarters and yamens belonging to the Army.

2. The officials of the Ministry shall be in accordance with the attached table.

3. The General Office of the Ministry shall exercise control over the following :—

(*a*) Secret affairs and documents and military treasure.
(*b*) Seals of the Ministry.
(*c*) Reports upon supplies for the Army and statistics of the Ministry.
(*d*) File, receive, and keep all documents, compilations and letters concerning the Army.
(*e*) Appointment of civilians attached to the Ministry.
(*f*) Records of all affairs of the Ministry.
(*g*) Other matters which do not come within the scope of any of the departments of the Ministry.

4. The Ministry shall consist of the following Departments :—

(*a*) Military Administrative Department.
(*b*) Department of Military Affairs.
(*c*) Ordnance Department.
(*d*) Military Education Department.
(*e*) Commissariat Department.
(*f*) Medical Department.
(*g*) Military Law Department.
(*h*) Army Remount Department.

5. The Military Administrative Department shall be in charge of :—

(*a*) Appointments, dismissal and transfer of all commissioned and non-commissioned officers and civilians in the Army.
(*b*) Investigation of all branches of the Army.
(*c*) Records of service, lists of those engaged in warfare, and of civilians in military employment.

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[1] The subject matter of this chapter refers to the Chinese army as it was before the outbreak of civil war in 1916, which lasted on into 1919.

(*d*) Verifying the list of military officers and non-commissioned officers and civilians in military service who are engaged upon active service.
(*e*) The compilation of books showing the order of seniority.
(*f*) The rewarding and decoration of those who have rendered conspicuous services.
(*g*) Matters concerning furlough and leave.
(*h*) The treatment of wounded soldiers.
(*i*) Matters concerning the marriage of officers and soldiers.
(*j*) Pensions.

6. The Department of Military Affairs shall be in charge of the following :—

(*a*) Reorganization and distribution of the Army.
(*b*) Plans for the improvement of the Army.
(*c*) Precautions for meeting emergencies.
(*d*) Movements and stations of troops.
(*e*) Special regulations in time of war.
(*f*) Issue of rules for the discipline of the Army.
(*g*) Matters concerning military standards (flags).
(*h*) Matters concerning uniforms, ceremonies, and medals.
(*i*) Military bands.
(*j*) Transfers or appointments of subordinate officers (N.C.O.'s).
(*k*) Establishment, concentration, disbandment, and the release of time-expired troops.
(*l*) Matters affecting the internal organization of the forces, frontier guards, and *gendarmerie*.
(*m*) Parade grounds and rifle ranges.
(*n*) Military preparations at strategic centres.
(*o*) Organization and disposition of heavy artillery.
(*p*) Supplies for telegraphs and other electrical communications, balloons, and aeroplanes.
(*q*) Military communications by land and sea.
(*r*) Fortifications and other military defences.
(*s*) Headquarters of Fortresses and Land Survey Offices.

7. The Department of Munitions and Armaments will be in charge of the following :—

(*a*) Plans for, and the supply, exchange and inspection of munitions and explosives for military use.
(*b*) The provision of suitable artillery for fortresses.
(*c*) Technical works, arsenals, and other military factories.
(*d*) Supply and replacing of arms and accoutrements.
(*e*) Supply or replacing of materials required for military use for communications, railways, balloons, and aeroplanes.
(*f*) The preparation and supply of materials and articles required for siege or defence works, or communications.

(*g*) Storage and inspection of the articles enumerated above.
(*h*) Enforcement of restrictions regarding the possession of ammunition.

8. The Military Education Department will be in charge of the following:—

(*a*) The compilation of regulations for military schools and colleges under the control of the Ministry.
(*b*) The compilation of books and the preparation of the course and system of training to be employed in military schools and colleges.
(*c*) Control of military schools and colleges and of rewards and punishments of officers thereof.
(*d*) Examination, reward and punishment of scholars in military schools and colleges.
(*e*) The sending of students abroad, and the selection of suitable students for special branches of the Army.
(*f*) The drafting of regulations for control and discipline of military students.
(*g*) Matters concerning the drilling and training of soldiers, and improvements in the methods thereof.
(*h*) Regulations for general and special manœuvres.
(*i*) Matters concerning compilation and printing of works for the Ministry.
(*j*) The compilation of military terms and symbols, and the preparation of maps for military use.
(*k*) Other matters concerning military education.

9. The Commissariat Department will be in charge of the following:—

(*a*) Supply and inspection of military uniforms.
(*b*) Issue of uniforms, provisions, and horses.
(*c*) Supply of provisions in time of peace and war.
(*d*) Supply of cooking and stable utensils.
(*e*) Purchase and storage of uniforms and provisions.
(*f*) Replacing of worn-out or discarded articles, and supply of funeral requirements.
(*g*) Temples and graveyards of soldiers.
(*h*) Transportation of military supplies.
(*i*) Instruction and examination of officers in charge of military supplies.
(*j*) Appointment and discharge of Commissariat officers.
(*k*) The Army Budget.
(*l*) Budget for Army Reorganization.
(*m*) Military accounting and auditing.
(*n*) Establishment of depots for stores, etc.
(*o*) Matters concerning pay and travelling expenses.
(*p*) Other matters concerning supplies and the inspection of supplies.

(*q*) Paymasters of the Army.
(*r*) Relations with the Ministry of Finance.
(*s*) Buildings and land for military purposes.
(*t*) Government property under the control of the Ministry.
(*u*) Military safes and baggage.

10. The Medical Department will have charge of the following:—

(*a*) Medical and Veterinary Officers.
(*b*) Physical examination of soldiers.
(*c*) Treatment of sick and wounded.
(*d*) Precautions against infectious diseases and other sanitary precautions.
(*e*) Sanitary and farriers' supplies.
(*f*) Sanitary preparations for active service.
(*g*) Appointment and discharge of Military Doctors, and Veterinary Officers.
(*h*) Inspections, reports and statistics regarding the health of the Army.
(*i*) Red Cross matters, and other similar charitable organizations for soldiers.

11. The Military Law Department will have charge of the following:—

(*a*) Enforcement of Military Law.
(*b*) Examination and appointment of military law officers and gaolers.
(*c*) Military Gaols.
(*d*) Reprieve or enforcement of criminal sentences.
(*e*) Composition of Military Courts, and the trial of offences against military law.

12. The Army Remount Department shall be in charge of:—

(*a*) Matters concerning the military horse-breeding establishments.
(*b*) Supply and transfer of horses as required.
(*c*) Improvement of horse-breeding, and purchase of horses for the Army.
(*d*) The training of farriers.
(*e*) Examination and appointment of stud officers.

13. The number of military departmental chiefs (including the First Class Principal Military Law Officer) shall be equivalent to the number of Councillors employed by other Ministries.

14. Departmental Assistants and 2nd and 3rd Class Military Law Officers shall not exceed 200 in number.

15. Other members of the staff of this Ministry, except those already referred to, shall be fixed by order of the Ministry.

16. This system shall come into force on the date of promulgation.

(The schedule referred to in Article 2 sets forth the number and rank of the principal officials of the Ministry. The Minister of War is to have the rank of a General or Lieut.-General. The Vice-Minister shall have the rank of Lieut.-General or Major-General. Councillors for the General Office shall be Major-Generals or Colonels, or civilians of equivalent rank. The Departmental Chiefs are to have the rank of Major-General or Colonel, or its equivalent. The three Secretaries of the General Office are to be Colonels or Lieut.-Colonels, or have equivalent civil rank, and the thirteen Assistant Secretaries in the same office shall hold a rank between Colonel and Lieutenant, or its civil equivalent. Each branch of each department is to be controlled by an officer of the rank of Colonel or Lieut.-Colonel, or equivalent civil rank. The Assistants in each branch are to hold a rank between those of Colonel and Lieutenant or equivalent civil, special, or technical rank. The Ministry has four Technical Supervisors, and eight Technical Experts.)

The Armed Forces

Until 1895 China had no regular modern troops. Her military forces consisted of the eight Banners (composed of Manchu, Mongol and Chinese soldiery) and the Green Flag or Provincial troops. There were eight Banners each of Manchu, Mongol and Chinese troops, in which were enrolled all descendants of the forces with which the Manchu invaders overthrew the Ming Dynasty. The headquarters of the Banner troops were at Peking, but garrisons were maintained at important towns in all but six of the provinces, under the command of Tartar Generals. The Bannermen still receive rations from the Government, but even this acknowledgment of the services of their ancestors may be expected to be abolished shortly, and as a military force they are now of no account.

The Green Flag Army was in no sense a homogeneous force. Each province maintained, or was supposed to maintain, a certain number of troops, under the direct control of the Viceroy, for constabulary work, and in some cases garrison duties.

The disasters of the Chino-Japanese War of 1894–5 led to a somewhat abortive attempt to reorganize the army. Five Divisions of a new army known as the Wu Wei-chun were raised, but the majority of these soldiery were disbanded after or at the time of the Boxer troubles of 1900. One Division, under Yuan Shih-kai, formed the nucleus of the Lu-chün, the new National Army.

The Lu-Chün

A Decree was issued in 1901 ordering the reorganization of the Army. Little, however, was done in this direction, except in Chihli, where Yuan Shih-kai, as Viceroy, raised and completed the organization of six Divisions of modern troops between 1903 and 1906. In the latter year four of these Divisions were transferred to the control of the newly-formed Ministry of War (Luchunpu), and a comprehensive scheme of army reorganization was sanctioned. This scheme contemplated the formation within ten years of thirty-six Divisions of the Lu-chün, or National

Army. The following year (1907) an accelerated programme received Imperial sanction, and the completion of the thirty-six Divisions was ordered to be effected by 1912.

The organization of eight Divisions and one Mixed Brigade was completed in 1907, four of which were stationed near Peking under the direct control of the Luchunpu, while two were placed under the control of the Chihli Viceroy and one each under the Viceroys of the Liangkiang and Hukuang provinces respectively. In 1908 the formation of a Division of the Imperial Guard was authorized. In 1909 nine Divisions had been completed and eleven were in various stages of formation, while the following year there were twelve almost complete Divisions and nineteen Mixed Brigades in the various provinces, exclusive of the Brigade of Imperial Guards Division.

Conditions of Service

Service in the National Army is mainly voluntary, for the present, though a form of conscription is enforced in certain provinces. Soldiers serve three years with the colours, and then pass into the First Reserve for three years. During this period they are supposed to put in a month's drill per annum, and draw a grant of one tael (2s. 6d.) per month. At the expiration of their service in the First Reserve the men are to be drafted into the Second Reserve. Their obligations are then decreased to a month's drilling in alternate years, and the Government grant is diminished to half a tael per month. At the expiration of their time in the Second Reserve the men receive their final discharge, and are no longer liable to military service.

Recruits for the ranks must be between twenty and twenty-five years of age, must be at least 5 ft. 6 in. in height (except in the southern provinces, where the minimum height is fixed at 5 ft. 4 in.), must be free from physical defects or internal disease, and must be able to lift a weight of about 133 lb. They must be residents in the locality in which they enlist, and must be able to furnish satisfactory particulars regarding their family, etc. Opium-smokers, law-breakers, and other undesirable characters are not accepted. Arrangements are made for the payment of a portion of a soldier's wages to his family direct, and the latter are excused certain taxes, and are ordered to be specially protected by the local officials while the soldier is on service. Details of the pay of various ranks will be found among the statistical information at the end of this section. Pensions are to be paid to the families of those who die in action and to soldiers who are wounded or serve for a long period.

Education of Officers

There is no uniformity of system for the training of non-commissioned officers as yet. But four distinct kinds of schools are contemplated for the instruction of commissioned officers, of which three were actually in operation when the Revolution occurred. There should be a Primary Military School in each provincial capital, at which youths from fifteen to eighteen years of age receive a three years' course of military education, including, as a rule, tuition in one foreign language. After completing the Primary School course, the cadet should proceed to one of the Four Middle Schools which have been established at Chingho, Sianfu, Wuchang, and Nanking. After a two years' course in the Middle School, the cadet should have six months' practical training with an Army Division, and should then complete his military training at the Military High School at Paotingfu, which was opened in October, 1912. This school is meant to accommodate about 1500 cadets, and furnish a two years' final course. The "Preparatory Staff College" at Paotingfu completes the higher training of military officers. This, in theory, is the educational system for training military officers, but as it is not fully organized as yet, many cadets have become officers as soon as they have left the Primary School, while others have received an additional training of two and a half years at the so-called "Quick Course" School, which fulfilled the functions of the Middle Schools until the latter were organized.

The following schools were in operation at the time of the Wuchang revolt, and with others are now being gradually reopened, as circumstances permit: twenty-seven Primary Schools, fifteen Surveying Schools, four Middle Schools, and one "Preparatory Staff College."

Army Administration

The supreme control of the Army is vested in the General Staff (Tsan Mou Peng Pu) and Ministry of War (Luchünpu). The President is Commander-in-Chief, and there is a Generalissimo's Bureau attached to the President's Office. In February, 1916, it was announced that a special Military Council had been established in the Palace. The Departments of this Council and their respective Chiefs were as follows :—

1. General Staff . . .	General Tang Tsai-li.
2. Yunnan Expedition . .	,, Tang Pao-chao.
3. Kueichow Expedition . .	,, Tsiang Ngan-hsing.
4. River Defences . . .	Admiral Li Chün.
5. Military Supplies . . .	General Tsao Kun.
6. Mongolian Expedition . .	Military Councillor Prince Palata.

Provincial Forces (Hsün-fang-tui)

In addition to the National Army or Luchün, each province maintains a certain number of Provincial Troops or Hsun-Fang-Tui. Efforts have been made to increase their efficiency by introducing uniform organization and modern drill and equipment. Until the Reserves of the National Army are completed, they are regarded in theory as the second line of defence, but in recent emergencies little or no distinction has been made between the provincial and national troops. It is intended to convert the provincial forces into constabulary at an early date.

During the Revolution a large number of the Hsun-Fang-Tui in the South were absorbed into the revolutionary armies, and consequently, in preparing the tables showing the strength of the Chinese Army, it has been considered advisable to include them in the Regular Army, instead of treating them as a distinct organization. The only provinces in which remnants of the old Green Flag Army now remain are Kansu and Sinkiang.

Imperial Guard (Chin-Wei-Chün)

An Imperial Decree in 1908 ordered the formation of a Division of Imperial Guards, originally recruited entirely from Manchus, for personal service to the Throne. An important change, however, was made in November, 1910, in throwing open enlistment in the Guards to Chinese as well as Bannermen. One Squadron of the Guards' Cavalry is now composed entirely of Mongols, and the 4th Infantry Regiment is recruited mainly from Chinese in Chihli province. One Division had been formed when the Revolution broke out. The Guards are better paid than the Luchün (privates receiving Tls. 8 per month), but their organization differs little from that of the ordinary Army Division.

When the Manchus abdicated the Republican Government undertook to retain the Imperial Guards without change in numbers or emoluments, but stipulated that they must be placed under the control of the Republican Ministry of War.

Pay

The following is the scale of pay per month in the Luchün :—

	Pay. Taels.	Allowances. Taels.
Commander of an Army Corps	600	1000
Commander of Division	400	600
Commander of Brigade	250	250
Commander of Regiment	200	200
Commander of Battalion	100	140
Commander of Company	60	20
A.D.C. to Division Commander	100	100
A.D.C. to Brigade Commander	80	80
Quartermaster-Sergeant	30	
Ordnance Sergeant	30	
Signal Sergeant	16	
Corporal	5·1	
Lance-Corporal	4·8	
First-class Private	4·5	
Second-class Private	4·2	

From Tl. 1 to Tls. 1·50 is deducted from the pay of Privates and Non-Commissioned Officers for food.

Details of Organization

Circumstances have prevented the adoption of any comprehensive scheme of Army Reorganization.

In the Declaration of Policy issued by the Cabinet in November, 1913, it was stated that the Government estimated the number of troops that could be relied upon for efficient service at half a million. The details of this estimate are set forth below. According to the present intentions of the Ministry of War the Army is to consist of forty divisions distributed between five military districts as follows :—

District.	Provinces comprised.	Divisions.
I.	Chihli, Shantung, Honan, Shansi, Shensi	11
II.	Kiangsu, Kiangsi, Anhui, Chekiang, Fukien, Hunan, Hupeh	8
III.	Szechuan, Yunnan, Kueichow, Kuangsi, Kuangtung	6
IV.	Manchuria, Inner Mongolia	6
V.	Kansu, Sinkiang, Chinghai, Alashan	4

Each district is also to have two mixed Brigades.

The Division (Shih) under a Lieut.-General should consist, at full strength, with all establishments in time of peace, of from 12,368 to 12,512 officers, men and non-combatants.

Each Division should contain—

Divisional Staff.
2 Infantry Brigades of 2 regiments each.
1 Cavalry Regiment.
1 Artillery Regiment.
1 Engineer Battalion.
1 Battalion Army Service Corps.
1 Band.
1 Sanitary Detachment.

In theory the war footing of a Division is about 20,900 officers, men and non-combatants.

Infantry (Pu Ping)

An Infantry Regiment consists of 60 officers and 1512 men commanded by a Colonel.

Two regiments form an Infantry Brigade.

Each regiment consists of three battalions.

Each battalion is subdivided into four companies, commanded by a Captain.

A company consists of 5 officers and 142 men (besides 12 non-combatants), and is divided into 3 sections, each containing 3 squads of 14 men.

Arms: M.88 Mauser, 6·5 mm. 30 Year Japanese, 6·8 Mauser of Chinese make, Mannlichers, and a great many other kinds of rifles.

Cavalry (Ch'i Ping)

A regiment consists of 48 officers, 816 men and 192 non-combatants with 720 horses.

There are 3 squadrons to each regiment. Each squadron is commanded by a Major, and is subdivided into 4 troops.

A troop contains 4 officers, 68 men, 16 non-combatants and 65 horses.

There are 2 sections or platoons to each troop and 2 squads of 14 men each to every section.

Arms: Chiefly M.88 Mauser and 6·5 mm. 30 Year Japanese carbines and swords. Only the Imperial Guard Cavalry carry lances.

Artillery (Pa'o Ping)

Each Artillery Regiment is commanded by a Colonel.

A regiment contains 3 battalions of 3 batteries each.

Each battery consists of 4 officers, 137 men, 38 non-combatants, 17 riding and 76 draught horses, 90 pack-horses, 6 guns, 3 ammunition wagons and 120 ammunition boxes.

Guns: 7·5 Krupp field and mountain guns, 7·5 cm. Arisaka and Schneider-Canet guns, 7·5 cm. Skoda, 7·5 cm. Vickers, Maxim, 7·5 cm. Krupp pattern mountain guns made at Kiangnan and Hanyang Arsenals and some 5·7 cm. guns and other artillery.

Engineers (Kung Ping)

The battalion is commanded by a Major.

Each battalion consists of the Staff and four companies.

Each company is commanded by a Captain and divided into three sections.

Each company consists of 4 combatant and 2 non-combatant officers, 140 men and 2 non-combatants.

The battalion is divided into bridging, telegraph, entrenching and mining companies.

Arms: Usually the pattern in use in the infantry of the Division to which the battalion is attached.

Transport Corps (Tzu Chung)

Battalion commanded by Major.

Each battalion made up of 4 companies of 3 sections each.

Each company consists of 4 combatant and 2 non-combatant officers, 140 men, 26 riding horses, 54 mules and 16 wagons.

Arms: Carbines, as a rule of the pattern used by cavalry of the Division.

Intendance Dept. (Ching Li Pu) **Army Medical Dept. (Chün I Pu)** **Veterinary Dept. (Shou I Pu)**	Attached to each Division.

Imperial Guard

The organization of the division of Imperial Guards is the same as that of other divisions with the addition of Communication and machine gun battalions.

Mixed Brigades

A Mixed Brigade generally consists of: 1 Infantry Brigade, 1 Battalion of Artillery, 1 squadron of Cavalry, and 1 company each of Engineers and Army Service Corps, between 5000 and 6000 troops in all.

LIST OF CHINESE MILITARY RANKS

Combatant Officers (General Officers, and Officers of the Gendarmerie, Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, and Transport).

Class 1.	(Shang Teng)	General Officers	(Chiang Kuan).
	1st Grade	General	(Shang Chiang).
	2nd ,,	Lieut.-General	(Chung Chiang).
	3rd ,,	Major-General	(Shao Chiang).
Class 2.	(Chung Teng).	Field Officers	(Hsiao Kuan).
	1st Grade	Colonel	(Shang Hsiao).
	2nd ,,	Lieut.-Colonel	(Chung Hsiao).
	3rd ,,	Major	(Shao Hsiao).
Class 3.	(Ch'u Teng)	Company Officers	(Yü Kuan).
	1st Grade	Captain	(Shang Yü).
	2nd ,,	Lieutenant	(Chung Yü).
	3rd ,,	2nd Lieutenant	(Shao Yü).

Non-Combatant Officers.

Class 1.	1st Grade.	Nil.
	2nd ,,	Director-General of Commissariat Department (Chün Hsü Tsung Chien ; ranking as Lieut.-General).
		Director-General of Army Medical Department (Chün I Tsung Chien ; ranking as Lieut.-General).
	3rd ,,	Director of Commissariat Department (Chün Hsü Chien ; ranking as Major-General).
		Director of Army Medical Department (Chün I Chien ; ranking as Major-General).
Class 2.	1st ,,	1st Class Principal Commissariat Officer (I Teng Chün Hsü Cheng ; ranking as Colonel).
		1st Class Principal Medical Officer (I Teng Chün I Cheng ; ranking as Colonel).
		1st Class Principal Apothecary (I Teng Ssu Yao Cheng ; ranking as Colonel).
		1st Class Principal Veterinary Officer (I Teng Shou I Cheng ; ranking as Colonel).
	2nd ,,	2nd Class Principal Commissariat Officer (Erh Teng Chün Hsü Cheng ; ranking as Lieut.-Colonel).
		2nd Class Principal Medical Officer ; Erh Teng Chün I Cheng ; ranking as Lieut.-Colonel).
		2nd Class Principal Apothecary (Erh Teng Ssu Yao Cheng ; ranking as Lieut.-Colonel).

Class 2.	3rd Grade.	2nd Class Principal Veterinary Officer (Erh Teng Shou I Cheng ; ranking as Lieut-Colonel).
		3rd Class Principal Commissariat Officer (San Teng Chün Hsü Cheng ; ranking as Major).
		3rd Class Principal Medical Officer (San Teng Chün I Cheng ; ranking as Major).
		3rd Class Principal Apothecary (San Teng Ssu Yao Cheng; ranking as Major).
		3rd Class Principal Veterinary Officer (San Teng Shou I Cheng ; ranking as Major).
Class 3.	1st „	1st Class Commissariat Officer (I Teng Chün Hsü ; ranking as Captain).
		1st Class Medical Officer (I Teng Chün I ; ranking as Captain).
		1st Class Apothecary (I Teng Ssu Yao ; ranking as Captain).
		1st Class Veterinary Officer (I Teng Shou I ; ranking as Captain).
	2nd „	2nd Class Commissariat Officer (Erh Teng Chün Hsü ; ranking as Lieutenant).
		2nd Class Medical Officer (Erh Teng Chün I ; ranking as Lieutenant).
		2nd Class Apothecary (Erh Teng Ssu Yao ; ranking as Lieutenant).
		2nd Class Veterinary Officer (Erh Teng Shou I ; ranking as Lieutenant).
	3rd „	3rd Class Commissariat Officer (San Teng Chün Hsü ; ranking as 2nd Lieutenant).
		3rd Class Medical Officer (San Teng Chün I ; ranking as 2nd Lieutenant).
		3rd Class Apothecary (San Teng Ssu Yao ; ranking as 2nd Lieutenant).
		3rd Class Veterinary Officer (San Teng Shou I ; ranking as 2nd Lieutenant).
		Bandmaster (Chün Yueh Chang ; ranking as 2nd Lieutenant).

Warrant Officers.

Warrant Officer (Sergt.-Major) of Gendarmerie	(Hsien Ping Chun Yü).
Warrant Officer „ „ of Infantry	. (Pu Ping Chun Yü).
Warrant Officer „ „ of Cavalry	. (Ch'i Ping Chun Yü).
Warrant Officer „ „ of Artillery	. (P'ao Ping Chun Yü).
Artificer Warrant Officer „ „	. (P'ao Ping Kung Chang).
Warrant Officer (Sergt.-Major) of Engineers	. (Kung Ping Chun Yü).
Artificer Warrant Officer „ „	. (Kung Ping Kung Chang).
Transport Warrant Officer	(Tzü Chung Ping Chun Yü).
Band Warrant Officer (Sergt.-Major)	. (Fu Chün Yüeh Chang).

Non-Commissioned Officers (Chün Shih).

Gendarmerie (Hsien Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s.
Infantry (Pu Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s.
Cavalry (Ch'i Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s and 1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class Farriers N.C.O.'s.
Artillery (P'ao Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s.
" " " " " " " " (Saddlers).
" " " " " " " " (Armourers).
" " " " " " " " (Carpenters).
" " " " " " " " (Smiths).
Engineers (Kung Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s.
Transport (Tzu Chung Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s.
" " " " " " " " (Farriers).
Commissariat (Ching Li).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s (Commissariat).
" " " " " " " " (Tailors).
" " " " " " " " (Shoemakers).
Sanitary Corps (Wei Sheng Ping).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class N.C.O.'s (Medical Orderlies).
Band (Chün Yueh).
1st, 2nd, and 3rd Class Band (N.C.O.'s).

N.B.—1st Class—Shang Shih; 2nd Class—Chung Shih; 3rd Class—Hsia Shih, in all branches.

Men (Gendarmerie, Infantry, Cavalry, Artillery, Engineers, and Transport). Privates are divided into three grades:—

Superior Class Private	(Shang Teng Ping).
1st Class Private .	. (I Teng Ping).
2nd Class Private	. (Erh Teng Ping).

REVISED MILITARY TERMS

Division—Shih.
Brigade—Lü.
Battalion—Ying.
Company—Lien.
Mixed Brigade—Hun Ch'eng Lü.
Regiment—T'uan.
Section—P'ai.
Squad—P'eng or Pan.

STRENGTH OF THE ARMY

During the Revolution large forces of irregular troops were recruited by the Republicans, and it is estimated that some 800,000 men were under arms throughout China when abdication was announced. A large number of these forces, however, consisted of volunteers who had been enlisted for service against the Imperial Government, and who returned to their occupations when their services were no longer required.

An official return in the latter part of 1915 gave the troops under the command of the Military Governors of a certain number of provinces as follows :—

Anhui	21,300	Kansu	13,800
Chekiang	14,500	Kiangsi	2,900
Chihli	82,000	Kiangsu	23,500
Fengtien	28,500	Kirin	9,000
Heilungkiang	19,000	Shensi	14,800
Honan	37,600	Sinkiang	8,000

The approximate strength of the Army on August 31, 1913, was returned at 500,000.

An official statement issued in 1916 gave the distribution of China's Army as follows :—

UNIT.	STATIONED AT
Chinweichün (Imperial Guard)	Hsiyuan, Peking (partly at Nanking)
1st Division	Pehyuan
2nd ,,	Wuchang, Hupeh
3rd ,,	Paotingfu, Chihli
4th ,,	Shanghai
5th ,,	Weihsien, Shantung
6th ,,	Nanchang, Kiangsi
7th ,,	Kaifengfu, Honan
8th ,,	Machang, Chihli
9th ,,	Siangyang, Hupeh
10th ,,	Shanghai
11th ,,	Peking
12th ,,	Nanyuan, Peking
13th ,,	Hsiyuan, Peking
15th ,,	Chungking, Szechuan
20th ,,	Hsinminfu, Fengtien
27th ,,	Mukden
28th ,,	Liaochung, Fengtien
1st Mixed Brigade	Yenchowfu, Shantung
2nd ,, ,,	Honanfu
3rd ,, ,,	Nanchang
4th ,, ,,	Wuchang

UNIT.	STATIONED AT
5th Mixed Brigade	Chingkiang, Kiangsu
6th „ „	Hankow
7th „ „	Kaifengfu
8th „ „	Chengchowfu, Honan
9th „ „	Nanchang
10th „ „	—
11th „ „	Foochow, Fukien
12th „ „	Taiyuan, Shansi
13th „ „	Paotowchen, Shansi
14th „ „	Pingyan, Shansi
15th „ „	Sianfu, Shensi
16th „ „	Langfang, Chihli
74th „ „	Chingkiang, Kiangsu
75th „ „	Kiangyin, Kiangsu
76th „ „	Yangchow
2nd Brigade, Cavalry	Chengchiatun, Manchuria
4th „ „	Heilungkiang
1st Tuan, Jehol Infantry	Jehol
2nd „ „ „	Chihfeng, Mongolia
Sakar Cavalry	Sakar
Kirin 1st Mixed Brigade	Changchun
„ 2nd „ „	Kirin
„ 3rd „ „	„ Changchun
„ 4th „ „	Kirin
Heilungkiang 1st Division	„
Shantung 47th Brigade	Tsinanfu
Honan 1st Mixed Brigade	Kaifengfu
„ 2nd „ „	„
Shansi 1st „ Tuan	Tatung
„ 2nd „ „	Fengchen
Suiyuan 1st „ „	Suiyuancheng
„ 2nd „ „	„
„ 3rd „ „	„
Kiangsu 2nd Division	Suchow
Kiangpeh 19th Division	Nanking
Kiangsu 1st Mixed Brigade	Kiangsu
„ 5th „ „	Pukow
Kiangsi 1st Tuan	Kiangsi
„ 2nd „	Kanchow
Chekiang 1st Division	Chekiang
„ 2nd „	„
„ 6th „	Hangchow
Hupeh 1st „	Chingchow
Hunan 1st Brigade	Hunan
„ 1st Division	„
„ 2nd „	„
Shensi 1st Mixed Brigade	Sianfu

Unit.	Stationed at
Shensi 2nd Mixed Brigade	Hanchung
,, 3rd ,, ,,	,,
,, 4th ,, ,,	,,
Singkiang Mixed Brigade	Sinkiang
Szechuan 1st Division	Szechuan
,, 2nd ,,	,,
,, 3rd ,,	,,
,, 2nd Mixed Brigade	,,
Canton 1st Division	Canton
,, 2nd ,,	,,
,, 1st Mixed Brigade	,,
,, 2nd ,, ,,	,,
Kuangsi 1st Division	Kuangsi
,, 2nd ,,	,,
,, 5th Brigade	,,
Yunnan 1st Division	Yunnan
,, 2nd ,,	Szechuan
,, Chingwei 1st Tuan	Yunnan
,, ,, 2nd ,,	,,
Kweichow 1st Division	Kueiyang
,, 1st Mixed Brigade	,,
Anhui 1st Division	Anking

Foreign Troops in North China

By the Peace Protocol of 1901 the Chinese Government recognized the right of the Signatory Powers to maintain military guards at Peking for the protection of the Legation quarter, and to occupy the following posts :—Huangtsun, Langfang, Yangtsun, Tientsin, Chengliangcheng, Tangku, Lutai, Tangshan, Lanchow, Changli, Chinwangtao and Shanhaikuan, in order to maintain free communication between Peking and the sea. Only a few of these posts were occupied, until communications were threatened during the 1911 Revolution, when the Powers decided to reoccupy various points on the railway, and subsequently the number of Legation guards was considerably reduced, notably by Germany, Russia and Japan. The following table shows the strength of the garrisons in North China in 1913. On the outbreak of the European War the troops of the belligerent Powers where for the most part withdrawn. By Article X of the Japanese Commercial Treaty with China, signed at Shanghai in October, 1903, the Chinese Government undertook to open of its own accord a place of international residence and trade in Peking "in case of and after the complete withdrawal of foreign troops stationed in the province of Chihli and of the Legation Guards."

AVIATION.

A Military Aviation School has been established at Nanyuan, Peking, and it is proposed to form others at Wuchang, Canton, Nanking Mukden, and Sianfu.

STATEMENT SHOWING STRENGTH AND DISTRIBUTION OF FOREIGN TROOPS IN NORTH CHINA ON JUNE 30, 1913

STATIONS.	AMERICAN.		AUSTRIAN.		BELGIAN		BRITISH.				FRENCH.		GERMAN		ITALIAN.		JAPANESE.		NETHERLANDS.		RUSSIAN		TOTAL.	
	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.		O.Ranks		Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.	Officers.	Other Ranks.
							British	Indian	British	Indian														
PEKING	16	313	4	60	1	30	15	—	353	2	8	280	8	143	7	192	12	295	1	34	11	290	83	1992
Fengtai	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	166	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	166
Huangts'un	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
Anting	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	8
Wanchuang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Langfang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	3	17	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	20
Lofa	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	9
Changchuang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Block-houses to Yangtsun	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
Yangtsun	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TIENTSIN	37	938	1	20	—	—	72	13	1418	715	36	985	9	273	—	11	56	827	—	—	17	791	241	5978
Chunliangcheng	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Hsinho	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Tangku	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	40	—	2	—	3	—	5	—	—	—	—	1	52
Peitang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
Hanku	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Lutai	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7
Hsü Ko Chuang	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	6
Tongshan	3	103	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	103
Kaiping	—	31	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	31
Wali	—	21	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	21
Kuyeh	3	74	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	74
Leichuang	—	42	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	42
Lanchow	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4	95	—	—	—	—	4	95
Changli	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	40	—	—	—	—	1	40
Peitaiho	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	1	31	—	—	—	—	1	33
Tangho	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	30	—	—	—	—	1	30
Chinwangtao	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	1	25	—	—	—	—	2	72	—	—	—	—	3	99
Shanhaikuan	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	13	—	10	—	—	—	—	13	292	—	—	—	—	13	323
Chihtaitzu (near Peking)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Total	59	1522	5	82	1	30	90	15	1940	800	46	1356	17	442	7	214	90	1687	1	34	28	1081	359	9188

THE NAVY[1]

THE MINISTRY OF THE NAVY (*Hai Chun Pu*)

The official system of the Ministry of the Navy was promulgated on August 31, 1912, and reads as follows:—

1. The Minister of the Navy shall have control over all naval affairs, and forces, and all quarters and yamens belonging to the Navy.

2. The officials of the Ministry shall be in accordance with the attached table.

3. The General Office of the Ministry shall exercise control over the following matters:—

(*a*) Secret affairs and documents, and naval treasure.
(*b*) Seals of the Ministry.
(*c*) Reports upon supplies for the Navy and statistics of the Ministry.
(*d*) File, receive and keep all documents, compilations and letters concerning the Navy.
(*e*) Appointments of civilians attached to the Ministry.
(*f*) Records of all affairs of the Ministry.
(*g*) Other matters which do not come within the scope of any of the departments of the Ministry.

4. The Ministry shall consist also of the following Departments:—

(*a*) Naval Administrative Department.
(*b*) Department of Naval Affairs.
(*c*) Department of Munitions and Armaments.
(*d*) Commissariat Department.
(*e*) Naval Education Department.

5. *The Naval Administrative Department* shall be in charge of:

(*a*) Appointment, dismissal and transfer of all naval officers and subordinate officers, and civilians attached to the service.
(*b*) Inspections of all officers.
(*c*) Records of service, lists of those engaged in warfare, and of civilians in naval employment.
(*d*) Verifying the list of naval officers and subordinate officers and civilians in naval employment who are engaged upon active service.
(*e*) The compilation of books showing the order of seniority.
(*f*) The rewarding and decoration of those who have rendered conspicuous services.
(*g*) Matters concerning leave and furlough.
(*h*) The treatment of wounded sailors.
(*i*) Matters concerning the marriage of officers and sailors.
(*j*) Administration of Naval Law.

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[1] The information here given regarding the Chinese Navy refers to the period prior to the outbreak of civil war in 1916, which lasted on into 1919.

(*k*) Supervision of Naval Law officers and officers of naval prisons.
(*l*) Patrolling and seizures, and investigation thereof in time of war.
(*m*) Naval Prisons.
(*n*) Reprieve or enforcement of sentences passed by naval Courts.

6. *The Department of Naval Affairs* shall be in charge of:

(*a*) Reorganization and distribution of the Navy.
(*b*) Naval precautions.
(*c*) Movements and stations of naval vessels.
(*d*) Special regulations in time of war.
(*e*) Issue of rules of the discipline of the Navy.
(*f*) Matters concerning uniforms, ceremonies, and medals.
(*g*) Matters concerning naval flags.
(*h*) Selection of voyages and routes for ships of war, naval transports, and volunteer ships.
(*i*) Survey of waterways, dockyards, and naval bases.
(*j*) Preparation and issue of maps and charts, for the use of the Navy, and the issue of general rules for navigation.
(*k*) Determining the limits of territorial waters.
(*l*) Compliance with the international marine signalling code.
(*m*) Investigation of lighthouses, buoys and beacons.
(*n*) Arrangements for ensuring the safety of ships, and the issue of warnings.
(*o*) Preparation and supply of chronometers and other instruments required for the Navy.
(*p*) Supervision of mariners.
(*q*) Naval hospitals and Red Cross societies.
(*r*) Physical examination of officers and sailors.
(*s*) Treatment of the sick and wounded and the discharge of sailors.
(*t*) Precautions against infectious disease and the enforcement of sanitary measures.
(*u*) Supervision of officers in charge of naval sanitation.
(*v*) Preparation of statistics in regard to the health of the Navy, sanitation, and the teaching of hygiene.

7. *The Department of Munitions and Armaments* shall have charge of:

(*a*) Mine and torpedo defences of coasts and rivers and the armaments of the fleet.
(*b*) Construction and repairs of naval fortifications, dockyards, shipyards, wharves, lighthouses, beacons and buoys, and the control thereof.
(*c*) Preparation of models, and the supply, replacement, and inspection of mines, torpedoes, explosives, ammunition, etc.
(*d*) Preparation of models, and the supply, replacement, and inspection of machines and instruments required for the Navy and the materials therefor.
(*e*) Supplies for naval communications and balloons.
(*f*) Storage and inspection of articles and materials required for the use of the Navy.

(*g*) Construction and control of shipbuilding yards.
(*h*) The building of and repairs to ships of war.
(*i*) Purchase and the supervision of the building of ships for the Navy.
(*j*) The manufacture, repair, and purchase of armaments and munitions.
(*k*) Manufacture, repair, and purchase of articles required for Naval purposes.
(*l*) Supervision of officers in charge of munitions.

8. *The Commissariat Department* shall have charge of:

(*a*) All matters concerning uniforms and the inspection thereof.
(*b*) Supply of uniforms, provisions, and coal and coke.
(*c*) Supply and delivery of provisions and coal, and the storage of same in times of peace and of war.
(*d*) Naval expenditure and the preparation of the Naval Budget.
(*e*) Accounting and auditing.
(*f*) Naval land and property.
(*g*) Transportation of naval supplies.
(*h*) Supervision of commissariat officers.
(*i*) Pay and travelling expenses for the Navy.
(*j*) Other matters concerning supplies and the inspection of supplies.
(*k*) Supervision of naval paymasters.
(*l*) Relations with the Ministry of Finance.

9. *The Naval Education Department* shall have charge of:

(*a*) The compilation of regulations for naval schools and colleges and other arrangements in connection therewith.
(*b*) The compilation of books and the preparation of the course and system of training to be followed in naval schools and colleges.
(*c*) Rewards and punishments of officers of naval schools and colleges.
(*d*) Control, rewards, and punishments of students at naval schools and colleges and examinations for students thereof.
(*e*) Control of students studying abroad, and the selection of suitable students for special branches of the service.
(*f*) Manœuvres of the fleet and regulations therefor.
(*g*) Drafting of regulations for the training of sailors, torpedo crews, and the supervision of such training.
(*h*) Fleet exercises and reviews.
(*i*) Schemes for training and improving the knowledge of sailors.
(*j*) Matters concerning the compilation and printing of works for the Ministry.
(*k*) Supervision of all officers engaged in naval education.
(*l*) Other matters concerning training and education in the Navy.

10. The number of naval departmental chiefs shall correspond with the number of councillors employed in other Ministries.

11. The number of assistants in the Ministry shall not exceed one hundred.
12. The number of officers of the Ministry shall be fixed by the Minister.
13. This system shall come into force on the date of promulgation.

(The table referred to in Article 2 sets forth the number and ranks of the principal officials of the Ministry. The Minister is to have the rank of Admiral or Vice-Admiral. The Vice-Minister shall be a Vice-Admiral or Rear-Admiral. Four Councillors shall be appointed to the Ministry, who shall have the rank of Rear-Admiral or Captain. The General Office is to contain four secretaries and ten assistants of the rank of Captain, Commander, or First Lieutenant, and eight Inspectors of the same ranks. The chief of each department is to be a Rear-Admiral or a Captain, or to hold equivalent rank in some other branch of the service. Chiefs of separate branches in each department may be captains, commanders, or lieut.-commanders, or officers of equivalent rank in some other branch of the service. The officer in charge of the Commissariat Department will have the rank of Paymaster-in-Chief. Four technical supervisors and eight technical experts are to be attached to the Ministry.)

ORGANIZATION

Under the Manchu régime each Province controlled its naval contingent independently of the Central Government. The new system proposed to place all maritime forces, whether naval squadrons or merely fleets or war-junks, under the direct control of the Haichunpu. In this way it was hoped to deal more promptly and effectively with any internal disorders. Steps were also taken to remove the Docks in Chihli, Shantung and Fukien from the hands of the provincial authorities and place them under the Minister of the Navy.

The Minister of the Navy estimated the expenditure required for the Navy in 1912 as follows:—

Pay and Educational Purposes . . .	$3,200,000 per annum
Drills and Squadron Manœuvres . .	$2,000,000 per annum
Balance still owing for ships building abroad	$10,000,000
Maintenance after arrival	$1,300,000 per annum
Construction and Arsenals	$1,000,000 per annum

It was recognized that in its then condition the Navy was not equal to the task of prosecuting a war, and with a view to providing for future expansion after the existing financial stringency had been overcome, particular attention was given to the education and training of officers and men. The scheme was that more cadets should be sent abroad to study, and that officers and crews should be frequently exercised in training and cruising vessels.

In regard to the construction of armaments, the Haichunpu favoured the policy of trying to induce foreign capitalists to establish extensive naval construction works in China, primarily with the object of training native engineers and workmen.

It has not yet been decided whether Nimrod Sound will be made the chief Chinese naval base. In some respects it is unsuitable for the purpose, and it is possible that Santuao or some other port will eventually be selected.

The naval schools at Chefoo, Nanking, Foochow and Canton are to be reorganized upon the British system.

The personnel of the Navy in 1914 consisted of about 1000 officers and 4830 deck and engine-room ratings.

NAVAL RANKS

The terms to be employed for naval ranks are as follows :—

Admiral	Shang Chang
Vice-Admiral	Chung Chang
Rear-Admiral	Shao Chang
Captain	Shang Hsiao
Commander	Chung Hsiao
Lieut. Commander	Shao Hsiao
First Lieut.	Shang Wei
Second Lieut.	Chung Wei
Third Lieut.	Shao Wei

STRENGTH OF THE NAVY

Appended is a table showing the strength of China's Navy in 1916 and its distribution.

(For convenience of arrangement this table is printed on p. 400 and following pages. A list of ships belonging to various provinces is inserted on the opposite page.)

SHIPS NOT ORGANIZED (BELONGING TO VARIOUS PROVINCES)

GUNBOATS—	Kwangyu	600	tons.	12·5	knots.
,,	Kwangking	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Chentau	450	,,	7	,,
,,	Kwangkeng	560	,,	11	,,
,,	Kwangwoo	,,	,,	10·5	,,
,,	Kwangchi	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	An-nan	350	,,	7	,,
,,	Haichangchin	800	,,	10·4	,,
,,	Haiching	350	,,	6·5	,,
,,	Kwangyuan	300	,,	7	,,
,,	Kwanghen	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Kwangli	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Kwangchen	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Kwangching	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Kwangpi	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Fupoa	1200	,,	8	,,
,,	Shinghung	,,	,,	,,	,,
,,	Chew-woo	1500	,,	10	,,
,,	Chuchai	1200	,,	13	,,
TORPEDO BOATS—	Lung	50	,,	18	,,
,, ,,	Fuh	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Chieng	26	,,	11	,,
,, ,,	Kung	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Twee	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Lee	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Chung	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Kong	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Kwong	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Tsung	,,	,,	,,	,,
,, ,,	Tsen	,,	,,	,,	,,
TRANSPORTS—	Fuan	1700	,,	12	,,
,, ,,	Feitseh	700	,,	11	,,

THE CHINESE

Type.	Name.	Length in feet.	Beam in feet.	Displacement. Tons.	Draught in feet.	I.H.P.	Where Built.	Date of Launch.
THE FIRST SQUADRON—								
2nd class steel protected Cruiser	Haichi. . .	424	46·8	4,300	17	3,400	Armstrong.	1898
3rd class steel protected Cruiser	Haichow . . Haiyung . . Taitan . .	328	40·8	2,950	16	1,500	Vulcan, Stettin.	1898
Steel Transport.	Nantan . .	280	36	1,905	17	2,400	Germany.	1883
Torpedo Gunboat.	Feiying . .	259·2	28·6	850	12·1	558	Vulcan, Stettin.	1895
Gunboat . . .	Yungfung .	205	29·6	780	8	1,350	Mitsu Bishi, Japan.	1912
,, . .	Lienching .	173	24	500	9	925	Kiang-nan Arsenal.	1910
,, . . .	Yungshan .	330	42	2,750	14·9	6,000	Kawa-saki, Japan.	1912
,, . . .	Woofung.	173	24	500	9	925	Chingtau.	—
River Gunboat .	Hsinchen .	146	24	140	2	500	Stettin, Germany	1911
,, ,, . .	Hsinpei .	144	24·5	,,	,,	450	Krupp, Germany	1911
THE SECOND SQUADRON—								
Steel Gunboats.	Kienwei . . Kienngan. .	258	26·5	871	12	6,500	Foochow.	1904
Steel Gunboats	Chusung, Chuyu, Chuehien, Chutai, Chuyū, Chukwan.	200	29·6	745	8	1,350	Japan.	1907
Steel Gunboats	Kiangyuen, Kiangheng, Kianglu, Kinngchen.	180	28	550	7	950	Japan.	1908

NAVY

Protection.	Coal capacity in tons.	Speed. Knots.	Complement.	Guns.	Torpedo Tubes.	Engines.	Boilers.
Arm'r Deck 2·5 ins.	990	24·5	439	2-8in. B L; 10-4·7 B L; 12-3 pdrs.; 4-1 pdr. maxims; 6-7 mm. Q.f. guns.	5 above water.	Triple expansion.	8 steel marine boilers.
Pro. Arm. Deck 3 ins.	580	19·5	279	3-15 cm.; 8-10·5 cm.; 2-6 pdrs.; 6-1 pdrs.; 1-6 c.m.; 6-·303 maxims.	1 below water.	Quadruple expansion.	4 steel marine boilers.
slope 1·5 in., flat, ·75 in.	500	13	126	2-8in.; 3-4·7in.; 1-1·5 in; 5-1in.; 1-·44in.	nil.	2 c'mp'd. horizontal.	4 double-ended cyl. mar.
Pro. A. Dk. 1 in.	170	22	—	2-10 cm.; 6-47 mm.; 4-1 pdrs.	3 above water.	Quadruple expansion.	8 water-tube boilers.
—	190	13·5	108	1-10·5 cm.; 1-7·5 cm.; 4-3 pdrs.; 2-1 pdrs.	—	Twin-sc. 3 cylinder.	2 cylindrical.
nil.	95	,,	60	4 3-pdrs.	nil.	Triple expansion.	Cylin'cal multitubular.
—	80	30	,,	1-10·5 cm.; 1 7·5 cm.; 4-3 pdrs.; 2 1-pdrs.	—	Twin-sc. 3 cylinder.	2 cylindrical.
—	95	13·5	,,	4-3 pdrs.	—	Triple expansion.	Cyl. multitubular
—	25	12	40	1-8·5 cm.; 4 maxims.	—	2-sc. 4 cyl. triple	1 water-tube
—	,,	,,	,,	1-8·5 cm.; 4 maxims.	—	2-sc. 2 cyl. compound.	2 water-tube.
nil.	180	18	136	1-10 cm.; 3-6·5 cm.; 6 37 mm; 4-6 pdrs.	nil.	Triple exp. vertical type.	4 double-ended w.-tube.
Pro. A. Dk. 1 in.	150	13	85	2-4·7in.; 2-12 pdrs.; 2-6·5 mm.; 2-25 mm.	nil.	Trip. exp. vert. type.	2 Yarrow wat.tubes
nil.	113	,,	,,	1-12 cm.; 1-7·5 c.m.; 4-4·7 cm.; 4-6 mm.	nil.	Trip. exp. vert. type.	2 Yarrow wat.tubes

THE CHINESE

Type.	Name.	Length in feet.	Beam in feet.	Displacement. Tons.	Draught in feet.	I.H.P.	Where Built.	Date of Launch.
THE SECOND SQUADRON—*contd.*								
Destroyers .	Chienkang Yüchang Tungan	197	21·5	390	6	6,000	Schichau Germany	—
River Gunboats	Chienchung Yunyan Kungchen	—	—	90	—	—	Yangtze Dockyard near Hankow.	1915
Torpedo Boats.	Hupeng, Huao, Hushu, & Huying.	135	15·6	96	5·5	1,330	Kawasaki Docky'd, Japan.	1906–7
,, ,,	Chen & Su .	144	17	90	5	1,000	Vulcan, Stettin.	1895
,, ,,	Lieh & Chung	130	15	62	5	600	Schichau Elbing.	1895
,, ,,	Kanchuan .	120	20	250	8	300	Kiangnan.	1908
TRAINING SQUADRON—								
Training Cruiser .	Shaoho .	320	39	2,400	13	6,000	Vickers.	1911
,, ,, .	Ying Sue .	330	42	2,750	14·9	,,	Armstrong.	—
Steel Training-ship.	Tungchi . .	252·7	34·1	1,900	15·7	400	Foochow Arsenal.	1894
Composite Training-ship.	Kingching .	265·8	36	2,200	18·3	2,400	Foochow.	1884

NAVY—*continued*

Protection.	Coal capacity in tons.	Speed. Knots.	Complement.	Guns.	Torpedo Tubes.	Engines.	Boilers.
—	80	32	60	2-12 pdrs. ; 4-3 pdrs.	2 above water	Twin-sc. 2 cylinder.	4 water-tube.
—	—	—	—	— —	—	—	—
nil.	28	23	29	1-2·5in. ; 1-6·9 mm. gun.	3 above water.	Triple expansion.	Water-tube.
,,	20	18	31	2-37 mm. guns.	3 above water.	Quadruple expansion.	Water-tube boilers.
,,	18	16	32×31	2-37 mm. guns.	3 above water.	Triple expansion.	Locomotive boilers.
,,	35	9	26	2-1·4in. ; 1 maxim.	nil.	Compound vertical	1 cylind. marine.
1·5 in.. flat, ·75 in.	550	20	230	2-6in. ; 4-4in. ; 2-14 pdrs. ; 6-3 pdrs. ; 2-1 pdr.	2 on deck	3 sc. Parsons turb.	4 w.-tube 2 cylind.
slope 2in., flt. 1in.	550	,,	210	2-6in. ; 4-4in. ; 2-3in. ; 6-3 pdr. ; 2-37 mm. maxims.	2 ab've water	3 sc. Parsons turb.	2 w.-tube 4 cylind.
nil.	200	12	155	2-6in. B L ; 5-12 cm. 3-6 pdrs. ; 8-1 pdr. ; 2-·303 maxims.	—	Compound.	4 locomotive boilers
1·5in., flat, ·75 in.	400	13	202	2-7in. ; 8-4·7in. ; 4-1·5in. ; 1-·44in. ; 4-2·5in.	nil.	Comp'd. horizontal.	8 cylindrical marine.

CHAPTER XVI

FINANCE

THE reorganization of the whole financial system of China, admitted by common consent to be a pressing necessity, still meets with insuperable difficulties, of which the unsettled condition of the country is not the least. Given a long period of peaceful development, the task, though not easy, would be possible; it remains out of the question so long as the country is subject to grave unrest at short intervals. The adjustment of China's finances to the requirements of a modern State presuppose the consolidation of the authority of the Central Government, reform of the civil service. uniformity in the moral standard of officialdom, improvement in the methods of collection of monies due to the State, and currency reform. Attempts to introduce the two latter reforms are being made, but are handicapped by the magnitude of the undertaking. The good intentions of the new régime are beyond doubt; for it has not been slow to appreciate the advantages accruing to China from the Customs Administration and the reorganization of the Salt Tax, both under foreign supervision.

With a view to improving the methods of collection of Government dues the Ministry of Finance has organized a system of sub-treasuries and branches throughout the country. The work of the Treasury is now carried on by the Principal Treasury, 19 Sub-Treasuries, 2 Branch Treasuries under direct charge, 42 Branch Treasuries, 9 Commissioned Offices, and 6 Agencies.

Budgets are issued more often than audited statements of revenue and expenditure. They are, however, by no means regular in their appearance. The Budget for the fifth fiscal year (July 1, 1916, to June 30, 1917) was submitted to Parliament on February 21, 1917, and its examination was completed on April 23. The Government, according to a semi-official statement, was alive to the futility of such a belated Budget, but thought that it would serve as a model for succeeding Budgets. As a matter of fact, no Budget was prepared for the sixth fiscal year (July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1918), and it was announced by Ministerial order that the 1916–1917 Budget would do duty a second time. In the following tables this Budget is referred to as the New Fifth Year Budget to distinguish it from the Fifth Year Budget introduced under the regime of Yuan Shih-kai, who in 1915 altered the financial year to make it coincide with the calendar year.

Revenue.	New 5th Year. July, 1916–June, 1917.	Old 5th Year. Jan.–Dec., 1916.	3rd Year. July, 1914–June, 1915.	2nd Year. July, 1913–June, 1914.
I. *Ordinary*—	$	$	$	$
1. Land Tax	90,105,784	95,972,818	76,859,060	79,180,723
2. Customs Revenue	73,056,663	71,310,970	78,773,341	66,970,003
3. Salt Revenue	96,767,010	84,771,365	84,879,873	77,401,265
4. Tax on Commodities, including Likin	42,719,194	40,271,368	34,175,656	36,876,823
5. Regular and Miscellaneous Taxes	34,768,432	32,341,704	28,000,424	33,725,227
6. Regular and Miscellaneous Duties	5,448,686	14,067,574	4,947,281	3,173,530
7. Income from Government Investment	2,083,401	2,621,261	4,063,483	7,849,648
8. Miscellaneous Income of Provinces	5,101,531	6,927,694	5,133,579	12,723,427
9. Income of Central Adminstration	1,374,648	1,635,464	4,620,775	—
10. Income Directly Received by Central Government	36,584,311	76,306,927	29,611,340	—
	388,009,660	426,237,145	351,064,812	317,900,646
II. *Extraordinary*—	$	$	$	$
1. Land Tax	5,751,464	1,580,695	2,368,749	3,222,889
2. Customs Revenue	706,885	847,359	629,716	1,254,280
3. Tax on Commodities	21,025	18,716	10,391	6,054
4. Regular and Miscellaneous Duties	3,911,410	4,496,333	—	132,829
5. Income from Government Investment	8,351	16,703	364,021	634,093
6. Miscellaneous Income of Provinces	91,610	338,253	1,575,024	10,115,868
7. Income of Central Administration	2,248,438	1,359,698	1,406,077	230,308 (Contributions)
8. Income Directly Received by Central Government	23,510,969	17,051,808	—	164,269 (Salt Revenue)
9. Miscellaneous Income of Central Government	8,100,000	—	—	—
10. Loans	24,291,468	20,000,000	25,082,398	223,370,000
11. Advances from Banks	16,187,305	—	—	—
	84,828,924	45,709,565	31,436,376	239,130,590
Total Revenue	472,838,584	471,946,710	382,501,188	557,031,236

Expenditures.	New 5th Year. July, 1916–June, 1917.	Old 5th Year. Jan.–Dec., 1916.	3rd Year. July, 1914–June, 1915.	2nd Year. July, 1913–June, 1914.
I. *Ordinary*—	$	$	$	$
1. Foreign Affairs	4,446,548	3,276,677	4,229,529	3,293,115
2. Interior	42,570,109	49,653,982	42,672,290	39,618,149
3. Finance	61,792,970	53,531,625	23,383,989 29,960,079	210,345,180
4. War	156,606,047	135,813,986	134,061,795	136,894,494
5. Marine	7,304,135	17,101,779	4,802,560	7,665,881
6. Justice	9,337,156	7,665,772	7,258,459	14,671,825
7. Education	4,433,893	12,611,583	3,276,904	5,207,215
8. Agriculture and Commerce	2,734,790	3,762,244	2,276,537	5,083,386
9. Communications	1,533,606	1,577,408	1,935,560	934,877
10. Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	1,044,216	947,230	1,065,344	—
	291,803,470	285,942,280	254,922,955	423,684,126
II. *Extraordinary*—	$	$	$	$
1. Foreign Affairs	1,846,786	826,141	—	1,013,223
2. Interior	3,117,770	2,105,864	—	4,263,860
3. Finance	162,397,633	175,302,789	98,564,793	181,568,614
4. War	10,711,333	6,438,727	3,526,282	26,910,518
5. Marine	847,434	102,758	10,000	1,307,014
6. Justice	28,610	45,572	—	370,312
7. Education	594,943	225,724	—	1,701,635
8. Agriculture and Commerce	1,279,496	376,792	—	959,735
9. Communications	116,833	112,783	—	457,843
10. Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs	94,276	40,000	—	—
	181,035,114	185,577,150	102,101,075	218,552,754
Total Expenditures	472,838,584	471,519,436	351,024,030	642,236,876

Under the heading "Income Directly Received by Central Government" are included the following:—

	$
Stamp Duty	5,864,400
Tobacco and Wine Licence Duty	2,012,852
Tobacco and Wine Tax	14,350,456
Income from Tobacco and Wine Sale	12,134,986
Mining Duty	2,221,617
	36,584,311

Provincial contributions are reckoned as being distributed among various items of the Revenue statement.

Of the total expenditure (Ordinary and Extraordinary) of the Ministry of Finance, $224,190,603, a sum of $142,244,888 was allocated for the amortization of and the payment of interest on loans.

The returns for the Ministry of Communications do not include the receipts and expenditures of the Government Railways or of the Postal and Telegraph services.

Salt Revenue. The following table gives the details of the Salt Revenue since 1914:—

	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
Balance in Group Banks at beginning of year . .	11,480,027	17,328,486	24,385,191	19,543,805
Revenue paid into Group Banks	60,409,676	69,277,536	72,440,560	70,627,250
Interest credited . .	231,825	197,053	279,042	258,903
Total . . .	72,121,528	86,803,075	97,104,793	95,929,005[1]
Charges and Obligations—				
Boxer Indemnity . .	13,505,834	23,788,463	10,071,371	—
Other Loans . . .	7,600,739	10,810,619	14,840,534	8,513,396
Total . . .	21,106,573	34,599,082	24,911,905	8,513,396
Miscellaneous Withdrawals	10,229	22,991	47,728	—
Releases and Government .	31,304,818	27,523,067	52,226,185	68,613,370
Transfer Charges and Losses	2,371,422	272,744	375,170	436,636
Balance with Banks at end of year	17,328,486	24,385,191	19,543,805	18,365,603
Total . . .	72,121,528	86,803,075	97,104,793	95,929,005

Likin Revenue. According to a return of the Ministry of Finance the revenue derived by a number of provinces from Likin in 1917 was as follows:—

	Tls.		*Tls.*
Anhui	1,617,000	Hupeh	3,140,000
Chekiang	3,617,000	Kansu	810,000
Chihli	325,000	Kiangsi	2,311,000
Fengtien	2,514,000	Kiangsu	3,112,000
Heilungkiang . . .	10,000	Shansi	3,219,000
Honan	2,690,000	Shantung	2,380,000
Hunan	1,712,000	Shensi	718,000

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[1] Includes $5,474,502 (Chinese Indemnity of 1901—part of 1916 contributions refunded by Maritime Customs) and $24,545 (Withdrawals refunded less Withdrawals).

Land Tax.—In 1915 the estimated yield from the Land Tax was $65,171,216, apportioned as follows:—

	$		$
Fengtien	940,256	Chekiang	4,182,375
Kirin	792,223	Kiangsi	4,382,557
Heilungkiang	362,017	Hupeh	2,149,173
Chihli	4,668,755	Hunan	2,235,012
Metropolitan District	5,083	Szechuan	3,440,772
Kiangsu	8,661,445	Marches	96,428
Anhui	2,484,330	Kuangtung	2,578,053
Shantung	6,677,421	Kuangsi	704,712
Shansi	5,418,522	Yunnan	1,263,931
Honan	7,669,960	Kueichow	336,245
Shensi	2,855,607	Jehol	102,008
Kansu	395,600	Chahar	15,207
Sinkiang	234,833	Suiyuan	101,978
Fukien	1,909,913		

CHINA'S INDEBTEDNESS

China's present foreign indebtedness may be divided generally under four heads:—

(*a*) Indemnity and War Loans.
(*b*) Railway Loans.
(*c*) General Loans.
(*d*) Provincial and Private Loans.

(*a*) *War Loans.*—These loans were all contracted during, or immediately after, the Chino-Japanese War, and amount to £54,455,000, of which about £30,307,053 is outstanding (December 31, 1918), involving a charge for 1919 of about £2,620,383.

Indemnities.—The Japanese war indemnity of Tls. 230,000,000 is included in the figures just quoted.

The indemnity exacted by the Powers after the Boxer outbreak of 1900 amounted to £67,500,000 (Hk. Tls. 450,000,000) divided into five sums, bearing interest at the rate of 4 per cent per annum, and payment is spread over thirty-nine years. The service of the debt is effected in accordance with a table attached to the Peace Protocol of 1901. The total principal outstanding at December 31, 1918, amounted to £60,355,218, and the fixed charge for 1919 is £3,312,570.

On China's declaration of war against the Central Powers all repayments of German or Austrian loans was suspended. At the same time the Allied Powers agreed to defer for five years the payments of the Boxer Indemnity. In the case of Russia, however, only one-third of the annual payment was officially remitted.

The loan of £1,000,000 for "Exchange Adjustment of Indemnity" obtained from the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank and the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank in 1905 was paid off in 1915.

The Indemnities are secured upon the revenues of the Maritime Customs (after payment of amortization and interest of the previous loans pledged on these revenues), and the total revenue of the Salt Gabelle.

From the time of the Wuchang outbreak the Chinese Government was unable to meet its indemnity and war obligations, to the prejudice of foreign bondholders. In order to prevent the revenue of the Customs from being deflected for revolutionary purposes, arrangements were at once made that all duties, as each port fell into revolutionary hands, should be deposited with a foreign bank in the name of the Inspector-General of Customs. By the end of November, 1911, the Peking Government had agreed to place under the control of the Inspector-General the whole revenue of the Maritime Customs, at whatever port collected.

(*b*) *Railway Loans.*—Loans contracted by the Chinese Government abroad for railway purposes (excluding the Belgian Loan for the construction of the Peking-Hankow Railway, paid off in 1908) amount to about £40,000,000, outstanding. With the exception of the loan for the Northern Railways, all existing railway loans have been contracted since 1900, and in the case of only a few has redemption actually begun. Details of the loans will be found in the tables below, and full information regarding the railways for which they were raised will be found in the chapter on Communications.

(*c*) *General Loans.*—The table of General Loans given below includes all those contracted up to 1916, together with the chief "official" loans of 1917 and 1918. During the three years 1916–1918 a large number of railway, industrial and other loans were contracted by Japan, only some of which were officially recognized. On p. 357 is given a list of the loans that are understood to have been made during this period.

(*d*) *Provincial and Private Loans.*—Below will be found a summary of a memorandum issued by the Ministry of Finance entitled "Reports upon the Short Term Debts of the Central Government."

DOMESTIC LOANS

A new departure in China's financial history was made with the successful flotation of a domestic loan in 1914. The amount fixed, $16,000,000, was oversubscribed by $8,000,000, and the loan was accordingly raised to $24,000,000, carrying 6 per cent interest. Repayment is to begin with the fourth year with a drawing of one-ninth of the total. In 1915 a second domestic loan for $24,000,000 was floated, the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation agreeing to act as one of the issuing and subscription agencies. The rate was 6 per cent, and the issue price 90, the loan to be repaid in eight years. This loan, which was also oversubscribed, substantial contributions coming from Chinese overseas, is secured on the Native Customs and Shansi likin, and the Ministry of Finance undertakes to hand to the Inspector-General of Customs the equivalent of the first year's interest and to pay subsequently $120,000 monthly for interest in succeeding years.

In April, 1918, regulations were sanctioned by the President for the floating of the Seventh Year Domestic Loan of the Republic, for

$93,000,000, to enable the Government to pay off its indebtedness to the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications. Two bond issues were to be made simultaneously, one called the Short Term Loan Bonds (5-year 6 per cent. bonds), to the amount of $48,000,000, redeemable within five years by semi-annual drawings of one-tenth of the total, and payable from monthly instalments released by the Maritime Customs of the Deferred Boxer Indemnity Fund; the other, called the "Six per Cent. Public Loan Bonds," to the amount of $45,000,000 (20-year bonds), redeemable after ten years by semi-annual drawings of one-twentieth of the total, and secured as a second charge on the Native Customs duties.

In addition to the above loans the Government is responsible for the Military Public Loan issued in 1911 at Nanking for $6,367,640, bearing 8 per cent interest. The terms of repayment provide for payment of one-fifth of the amount annually from the second year. A public drawing was held in Peking on February 20, 1915, and bonds to the value of $1,153,528 were redeemed. A 6 per cent "Public Loan" of $4,006,920 also dates from the first year of the Republic. Interest on this loan has been paid once; repayment starts from the fifth year.

REVOLUTION INDEMNITIES

In 1915 the Ministry of Finance issued a statement of the amounts paid for indemnities in respect of losses sustained by foreign subjects during the 1911–12 Revolution.

Countries.		Amount paid.
Austria-Hungary	Tls.	10,810·28
Belgium	,,	111,273·10
Denmark	,,	274,775·16
France	,,	758,649·88
Germany	,,	944,778·68
Great Britain	,,	168,835·75
Holland	,,	18,115·85
Italy	,,	80,635·98
Japan	,,	1,781,677·15
Russia	,,	132,898·09
Spain	,,	3,678·36
Sweden	,,	9,319·69
United States	,,	784,793·93
Total	Tls.	5,080,241·90

On March 13, 1915, the Chinese Government was notified that a sum of £1,375,000 was at its disposal, being the unexpended balance of the £2,000,000 set aside under the terms of the Reorganization Loan for the indemnification of foreigners for losses incurred during the Revolution.

DEBT SERVICE, 1916

The amount required for the service (Interest and Sinking Fund) of China's known Foreign Debt (including the Boxer Indemnity) is in ound figures £10,800,000.

A. INDEMNITY AND WAR LOANS

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Price of Issue.	Amount received by Chinese Government.	Term of Redemption.		Principal paid off to Dec. 31, 1918.	Principal outstanding, Dec. 31, 1918	Total Charge (Interest and Principal) for 1919.	SECURITY.
						Years.	Date.				
1894	Hongkong and Shanghai Bank (War Loan) . .	Tls. 10,900,000 =£1,635,000	† 7	98	—	20	1914	—	Nil.	Nil.	Redeemed 1913.
1895	Hongkong and Shanghai Bank (War Loan) . .	£3,000,000	6	96½	92	20	1915	£ 3,000,000	Nil.	Nil.	,, 1914.
1895	Chartered Bank of India, etc. (Cassel Loan) . . .	£1,000,000	6	106	95½	20	1915	1,000,000	Nil.	Nil.	,, 1915.
1895	Arnhold, Karberg and Co. (Nanking Loan) . .	£1,000,000	6	104½	—	20	1915	1,000,000	Nil.	Nil.	,, 1915.
1895	Chino-Japanese War Indemnity. Franco-Russian Government Loan . .	Fcs. 400,000,000 =£15,820,000	4	96½	94⅛	36	1931	7,469,447	£ 8,350,553	£ 836,670	Revenue of Maritime Customs and Russian Govt. guarantee.
1896	Anglo-German Government Loan . .	£16,000,000	5	98¾ 99	94	36	1932	6,428,500	9,571,500	954,740	Maritime Customs Revenue.
1898	Anglo-German Government Loan . .	£16,000,000	4½	90	83	45	1943	3,615,000	12,385,000	828,973	Revenue of Maritime Customs and 1st charge on 3 salt taxes and 4 likin revenues.

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Price of Issue.	Amount received by Chinese Government.	Term of Redemption.		Charge (Interest) for 1918.	Principal Outstanding, Dec. 31, 1918.	Total Charge (Interest and Principal) for 1919.	Security.
						Years.	Date.				
	Boxer Indemnity:							£	£	£	
1901	A Tls. 75,000,000 @ 3s. † .	=£11,250,000	4	—	—	39	1940	574,425**	8,301,432	574,425	Balance of revenues of Maritime Customs after payment of pre-existing charges, Native Customs revenues at open ports, and salt gabelle.
1901	B Tls. 60,000,000 @ 3s. † .	= £9,000,000	4	—	—	39	1940	520,470**	7,521,393	520,470	
1901	C Tls. 150,000,000 @ 3s. † .	=£22,500,000	4	—	—	39	1940	1,047,600**	20,344,495	1,047,600	
1901	D Tls. 50,000,000 @ 3s. † .	= £7,500,000	4	—	—	39	1940	277,505	6,937,898	480,075	
1901	E Tls. 115,000,000 @ 3s. † .	=£17,250,000	4	—	—	39	1940	690,000	17,250,000	690,000	
									60,355,218		
1905	Hongkong and Shanghai and Deutsch-Asiatische Banks (Exchange Adjustment of Indemnity) †* .	£1,000,000	5	97	—	20	(1925) 1915	—	Nil.	Nil.	Redeemed.

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† Shanghai currency at 3s. per Tael.

** Fixed annual charge for amortization and interest which began in 1902 on "A," 1911 on "B," and 1915 on "C."

†* The following table shows the manner in which the indemnity was divided :—

	Proportion per cent.	Haikuan Taels.		Foreign Currency.	
Germany . . .	20·015 67	90,070,515	Mks.	278,166,423·93	
Austria-Hungary .	0·889 76	4,003,920	Kr.	10,394,092·40	
Belgium . . .	1·885 41	8,484,345	Fr.	31,816,293·75	
Spain	0·030 07	135,315	Ps.	507,431·25	
United States . .	7·319 79	32,939,055	Dol.	24,440,778·81	(of which $10,785,286·12 was remitted in 1908).
France . . .	15·750 72	70,878,240	Fr.	265,793,400·00	
Great Britain . .	11·249 01	50,620,545	£	7,593,080·19	
Portugal . . .	0·020 50	92,250	£	13,837·17	
Italy	5·914 89	26,617,005	Lire	99,803,768·75	
Japan	7·731 80	34,793,100	Yen	48,950,891·70	
Holland . . .	0·173 80	782,100	Fi.	1,404,651·60	
Russia	28·971 36	130,371,120	Rls.	180,084,021·44	
Norway and Sweden .	0·013 96	62,820	£	9,423	
Sundry . . .	0·033 26	149,870	£	22,450·10	

B.—RAILWAY LOANS

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Issue Price.	Amount received by Chinese Govt.	Term of Redemption.			Principal paid off to December 31st, 1918.	Principal outstanding on December 31st, 1918.	Total Charge (Interest, and Principal) for 1919.	Security.
						Years.	Date.					
		£							£	£	£	
1899	British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Imperial Railways of North China.	2,300,000	6	97	90	45	1944	—	805,000	1,495,000	132,250	Government guarantee and revenues of railway. Railway to be handed over in case of default.
1898	Franco-Belgian Loan for Peking-Hankow Railway	4,500,000	5	—	90	30	1928	Redeemed in 1909				
1902	Russo-Chinese Bank Loan for Shansi Railway (floated in France)	1,600,000	5	—	90	30	1932	—	329,200	1,270,800	126,720	Government guarantee and revenue of railway.
1903	Franco-Belgian Loan for Kaifengfu-Honan Railway	1,000,000	5	—	90	30	1934	—	213,815	1,426,185	131,580	Government guarantee and revenue of railway.
1907	Franco-Belgian Supplementary Loan (Kaifengfu-Honan Railway). .	640,000	5	—	90	25	1932					
1904	British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Shanghai-Nanking Railway .	2,250,000	5	97½	90	50	1953	—	(To be redeemed in full in 1953)	2,900,000	145,000	Profits of and mortgage upon the railway.
1907	British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Shanghai-Nanking Railway .	650,000	5	100	95½	47	1953					
1905	Pekin Syndicate Loan for Taokow-Chinghua Railway	700,000	5	—	90	30	1935	—	(First instalment due, 1916)	700,000	35,000	Government guarantee and revenue of railway.
1905	Hongkong Government Loan for redemption of Canton-Hankow Railway Contract	1,100,000	4½	—	100	10	1915	—	—	—	—	Redeemed
1907	British and Chinese Corporation Loan for Canton-Kowloon Railway . .	1,500,000	5	100	94	30	1937	—	(First instalment due, 1920)	1,500,000	75,000	Profits of and mortgage upon the railway.

B.—RAILWAY LOANS—*continued*

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Issue price.	Amount received by Chinese Govt.	Term of Redemption.		Charge (Interest) for 1918.	Principal paid off to December 31st, 1918.	Principal outstanding on December 31st, 1918.	Total Charge (Interest and Principal) for 1919.	SECURITY.
						Years.	Date.					
		£						£		£	£	
1908	*Anglo-German (Imperial Chinese Government 5 p.c. Tientsin-Pukow Railway Loan)	3,000,000	5	98¾	93	30	1938	250,000	(First instalment due, 1919)	5,000,000	493,750	First charge upon likin and internal revenues of Chihli, Shantung, and Kiangsu.
1909	*Anglo-German (Imperial Chinese Government 5 p.c. Tientsin-Pukow Railway Loan)	2,000,000	5	100	93	29	1938					
1908	British and Chinese Corporation Loans for Shanghai-Hangchow-Ningpo Railway	1,500,000	5	99	93	30	1938	75,000	(First instalment due, 1919)	1,500,000	148,125	Surplus earnings of Peking-Mukden Railway.
1908	Anglo-French Loan for redemption of Peking-Hankow Railway	5,000,000	5†	98	94	30	1938	250,000	(First instalment due, 1919)	5,000,000	500,000	Sundry taxes of Chekiang, Kiangsu, Hupeh, and Chihli.
1908	Japanese Loan for Kirin-Changchun Railway	Yen 2,150,000 @ 10= £215,000	5	—	93	25	1934	10,750	(First instalment due, 1914)	215,000	10,750	Revenue of the railway.
1909	Japanese Loan for Hsin-mintun-Mukden Railway	Yen 320,000 @ 10= £32,000	5	—	93	18	1927	£1,492 10s	£11,000	£ 21,000	£ s. 3,127 19	Revenue of the railway.
1910	Anglo-German (Tientsin-Pukow Railway Supplementary Loan)	3,000,000	5	—	—	30	1940	150,000	(First instalment due, 1921)	3,000,000	150,000	First charge upon likin and certain internal taxes of Chihli, Shantung, Kiangsu, and Anhui.
1910	London, City, and Midland Bank (Yuchuanpu Bonds for Peking-Hankow Railway expenses)	450,000	7	108	100	10	1920	31,500	(First instalment due, 1916)	450,000	31,500	Government guarantee.

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* Of these loans £1,850,000 was issued by the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank and £3,150,000 by the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank.

† After October 5, 1923, interest to be reduced to 4½ per cent.

B.—RAILWAY LOANS—*continued*

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Issue price.	Amount received by Chinese Govt.	Term of Redemption.		Charge (Interest) for 1918.	Principal paid off to December 31st, 1918.	Principal outstanding on December 31st, 1911.	Total Charge (Interest and Principal) for 1919.	Security.
						Years.	Date.					
		£						£		£	£	
1910	Peking-Hankow Railway Redemption Loan (Yokohama Specie Bank)	220,000	7	—	97½	10	1920	15,400	(First instalment due, 1915)	210,000	15,400	—
1911	Yuchuanpu Loan (Yokohama Specie Bank) for Peking-Hankow Railway expenses	1,000,000	5	—	95	25	1936	50,000	(First instalment due, 1922)	1,000,000	50,000	Government guarantee and Tribute Grain Conversion Tax of Kiangsu.
1911	Hukuang Railways Sinking Fund Gold Loan (Four Nations Loan).[1]	6,000,000	5	—	95	40	1951	300,000	(First instalment due, 1921)	6,000,000	300,000	Hupeh and Hunan salt and likin revenues and Hupeh rice tax.
1912	Nanchang-Kiukiang Railway Loan (East Asia Industrial Co.)	500,000	6½	—	100	15	1927	32,500	(First instalment due, 1922)	500,000	32,500	—
1912	Belgian-Lanchow Railway Loan (Lung-Tsing-u-Hai)[2]	4,000,000	5	—	—	40	1952	—	—	4,000,000	200,000	Government guarantee and mortgage on railway.
1913	Sinyang-Pukow Railway (British and Chinese Cpn.)	3,000,000	5	—	95	40	1953	—	—	—	—	—
1914	Taokow-Chinghua Railway	800,000	5	—	—	20	1935	—	—	800,000	—	—
1915	Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun (Yokohama Specie Bank)	500,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1917	Nanchang Railway (Toa Kogyo Kaisha)	230,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1917	Kirin-Changchun (S. Manchuria Railway Co.)	650,000	5	—	91½	30	1947	—	—	—	—	Railway revenue and property.
1918	Do. do. (Supplementary)	63,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1918	2nd Ssupingkai-Chengchiatun (Japanese)	260,000	7	—	—	1	1919	—	—	—	—	Railway revenue.
1918	Kirin-Huaining (Japanese)	1,000,000	5	—	—	40	1958	—	—	—	—	

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[1] British, French, German, and American Group.

[2] Part only. Total loan, £10,000,000.

C.—GENERAL LOANS

Date.	Title, Source, etc.	Principal Amount.	Interest per cent.	Issue Price.	Amount received by Chinese Govt.	Term of Redemption.		Principal paid off to December 31, 1918.	Principal outstanding on December 31, 1918.	Total charge (Interest and Principal) for 1919.	Security.
						Years.	Date.				
		£						£	£	£	
1900	Anglo-Danish Telegraph Loan	210,000	5	—	—	30	1930	—	—	—	Shanghai-Taku Cable.
1901	,, ,, ,, .	48,000	5	—	—	29	1930	—	—	—	Chefoo-Taku Cable.
1911 (Apl.)	Telegraph Loan (Eastern Extension and Great Northern Telegraph Companies) . . .	5,000,000	5	—	—	[36 half-yearly instalments.]		41,664	458,336	50,691	Certain Telegraph Receipts.
1911	Currency Reform and Industrial Development Loan (Four Nations Group)	10,000,000	5	95	95	[Not yet floated.]		An advance of £400,000 for Plague and other expenses in Manchuria was made on June 1, 1911.			Tobacco, wine, production and consumption taxes of the three Manchurian Provinces and new Salt Surtax of the whole of China.
1912 (Sep.)	Loan from Messrs. C. Birch Crisp and Co. .	5,000,000	5	95	89	40	1952	First instalment 1923	5,000,000	250,000	Surplus Revenues of Salt Gabelle.
1913	Chinese Government 5% Reorganization Loan[1] .	25,000,000	5	90	84	47	1960	First instalment 1924	25,000,000	1,250,000	Salt Duties.
1914	Chinese Government 5% Gold Loan[2] . . .	Fcs. 100,000,000 = £4,000,000	5	81	—	50	1964	First instalment 1930	4,000,000	200,000	
1915	Chinese Republic 5% Conversion Loan[3] . .	£ 400,000	5	—	—	41	1918	—	100,000	300,000	Land Taxes and Customs Duties.
1917	First Advance of Second Reorganization Loan .	1,000,000	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1917	Second Advance . .	1,000,000	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1918	Third Advance . .	1,000,000	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1917	Flood Relief . .	Tls. 700,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1917	Grand Canal Loan . .	1,200,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	G$6,000,000, of which G$3,500,000 advanced by the American International Corporation and G$2,500,000 by the Industrial Bank of Japan.
1918	Plague Suppression Loan	$4,000,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	To be refunded in 10 months. Loan by Group Banks.

JAPANESE LOANS TO CHINA (1915–1918)

Exclusive of loans included in the preceding Tables.

The loans appearing in a list issued by the Japanese Government, covering the period from October, 1916, to June, 1918, are marked with an asterisk. Of some of the other loans given below the Japanese Government disclaim official knowledge.[1]

			Yen.
1915,	May.	Loan to Central Government for three years at 6%. Issue price, 94	5,000,000
1916,	Nov.	* Kuangtung Loan by Bank of Taiwan	600,000
,,	,,	* Hankow Paper Mill Loan by Chino-Japan Industrial Development Co.	2,000,000
,,	Dec.	* Tientsin Spinning Mill Loan by Okura Gumi	600,000
1917,	Jan.	* Hankow Hydraulic Electric Co. by Toa Kogyo Kaisha	1,000,000
,,	,,	Fengtien Province by Bank of Chosen	2,000,000
,,	,,	* Bank of Communications for Note Redemption by Japanese Banking Group	5,000,000
,,	Feb.	* Kuangtung Provincial Government by Japanese Banking Group	3,000,000
,,	May.	* Kuantung Loan by Bank of Taiwan on security of Salt Gabelle	1,500,000
,,	Aug.	* Nanchang Railway Loan by Toa Kogyo Kaisha	2,300,000
,,	,,	* Shantung Loan by Japan-China Industrial Development Co.	1,500,000
,,	Nov.	* Chihli Flood Relief Loan by Sino-Japanese Industrial Co. and Japanese Banking Group	5,000,000
1918,	Jan.	* Printing Bureau Loan by Mitsui Bussan Kaisha	2,000,000
,,	,,	Loan to Tuchun of Chihli by Mitsui Bussan Kaisha	1,000,000
,,	,,	Loan to Governor of Hunan by Japanese Syndicate	2,000,000
,,	,,	Fukien Loan	1,000,000
,,	,,	Chihli Yarn Purchase Loan by Mitsui Bussan Kaisha	1,000,000
,,	,,	Loan to Central Government by Tai-hei Kumei Syndicate	14,000,000
,,	April.	* Telegraph Administration by Sino-Japanese Exchange Bank	20,000,000
,,	,,	* Fengtien Province Note Redemption by Bank of Chosen	3,000,000
,,	May.	* Chihli Provincial Loan by Bank of Chosen	1,000,000
,,		Yu Kan (Kiangsi) Iron Mines Loan	3,000,000
,,	July.	Kirin Forestry Loan by Japanese Banking Group	30,000,000

Japanese Loans to the Hanyehping Iron and Coal Co., Ltd., for the period 1903–13 are said to amount to Yen 31,000,000.

A Chinese statement (*Peking Leader*) issued in Peking in July, 1918, gave the total of thirteen loans contracted by the Republic from 1912 to 1916 as equivalent to $467,100,000 in Chinese currency. It added :—

"Besides these there are other short term foreign loans contracted by the various Ministries themselves, about thirty in number, amounting to not less than $29,710,201. These foreign loans may be classified into six different kinds :—

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[1] List compiled by the *Far Eastern Review*.

"(1) Those borrowed by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs from the Lunghsin Company. (2) The To-erh-meng Loan by the Ministry of Finance. (3) The Treasury Bonds Loan from Carlowitz and Co. by the Ministry of War. (4) That owed by the Ministry of the Navy to the A-mu-se-chuang Dockyard. (5) That by the Ministry of Education from the Banque Belge pour l'Etranger.

"There are other long term loans contracted by the Ministry of Communications, mostly in connection with Railways and Telegraph and Telephone Administration. These loans are over thirty in number, amounting to about $465,798,060. From the first year of the Republic up to the first half year of the fifth year the Central Government has contracted foreign loans to the amount of $932,898,060, excluding those contracted by the Provincial Governments."

The loans contracted in the fifth, sixth, and seventh years of the Republic (1916–18) are given by the same authority as follows :—

	$
1. The Cotton Yarn Loan	3,000,000
2. Flood Relief Loan	5,000,000
3. The Printing House Loan	2,000,000
4. The First Chiaotung Loan	5,000,000
5. The Second Chiaotung Loan	2,000,000
6. The Second Reorganisation Loan	10,000,000
7. The First Ammunition Loan	10,000,000
8. The First Fengtien Loan	1,000,000
9. The Second Fengtien Loan	2,000,000
10. The Third Fengtien Loan	3,000,000
11. The Hupeh Loan	1,000,000
12. The Canton Cement Factory Loan	3,000,000
13. The Telegraph Administration Loan	20,000,000
14. The Hunan Shuikowshan Mines Loan	2,000,000
15. The Wireless Installation Loan	5,000,000
16. The Telegraph Administration Loan	14,000,000
17. Shensi Loan	4,000,000
18. The Ki-Hwei Railway Loan	20,000,000
(The above are all Japanese loans.)	
19. Plague Prevention Loan	1,000,000
(From various foreign bankers.)	
20. The Grand Canal Loan	12,000,000
($5,000,000 of this loan are Japanese money and $7,000,000 are American.)	

In addition to the above loans, added the *Peking Leader*, there were at that time under negotiation loans for an aggregate amount of $230,000,000 as follows :—

	$
Land Tax Loans	100,000,000
Fenghuangshan Iron Mines Loan	10,000,000
Lungkuan Iron Mines Loan	10,000,000
Tungling Forestry Loan	10,000,000
Peking-Mukden Railway Income Surplus Loan	20,000,000
Two Loans secured by the seventh year Domestic Bonds	40,000,000
Loans secured by Revenue Stamp Tax	20,000,000
Fukien and Shanghai Dockyards Loan	20,000,000

LOANS CONTRACTED BY THE REPUBLICAN GOVERNMENT

(Statement by Ministry of Finance 1915)

		Int.	Disc.	Repayment Begins. Ends.	Amount Outstanding.
Arnhold, Karberg, 1st Loan . .	300,000	6	95	1912–1916	120,000
Arnhold, Karberg, 2nd Loan . .	450,000	6	95	1912–1921	450,000
Arnhold, Karberg, 3rd Loan . .	300,000	6	95	1913–1918	300,000
1st Austrian Loan .	1,200,000	6	92	1913–1918	1,200,000
2nd ,, ,, .	2,000,000	6	92	1913–1918	2,000,000
3rd ,, ,, .	500,000	6	92	1914–1919	500,000
B. and C. Cpn. Loan	375,000	6	91	1914–1934	375,000
Franco-Chinese ,, .	Fr. 50,000,000	5	84	1914–1964	Fr. 50,000,000

List also includes Reorganization Loan, Crisp Loan, 1914 Conversion Loan.

SHORT TERM DEBTS

Under the heading of "Reports upon the Short Term Debts of the Central Government" the Ministry of Finance issued in the latter half of 1913 a statement of the financial indebtedness of China in regard to minor loans and provincial loans not included in the foregoing tables. After specifying the loans and advances to which the Report does not refer, the memorandum continues :—

In the present compilation none of the amounts due for payment has been calculated beyond June 30, 1914.

6. In the case of Items in this present compilation which are not merely short term items but the payments of which extend over a number of years such as the Domestic Loans for military requirements, "Patriotic" Loans, etc., we have included the amounts of the annual payments in order to make the list complete.

7. The draft of this compilation closes as on June 10, 1913. All previous figures were reckoned and balanced up to this date.

The following are the totals distributed by Ministries :—

Domestic

Ministry of Finance . . .	$ 41,503,560.926
,, ,, War	,, 3,690,174.177
,, ,, Navy	,, 1,943,483.404
,, ,, Education . . .	,, 78,231.810
,, ,, Industry and Commerce	,, 211,730.704
Home Affairs	,, 47,964.788
Domestic Total	$ 47,475,145.809

List of Totals of Foreign Short Term Debts due by the Central Government.

Ministry of Finance	$ 4,601,039 490
,, ,, Foreign Affairs	,, 2,865,031.806
,, ,, War	,, 10,305,817.833
,, ,, Navy	,, 9,977,941.147
,, ,, Education	,, 1,054,555.200
,, ,, Industry	,, 2,887.080
,, ,, Home Affairs	,, 82,880.000
Foreign Total	$ 28,890,152.556
Grand Combined Total	$ 76,365,298.365

C. CURRENCY

§ 1. THE TAEL. § 2. THE DOLLAR.
§ 3. SUBSIDIARY COINAGE. § 4. BANK NOTES.
§ 5. CURRENCY QUESTIONS. § 6. CURRENCY REFORM.
§ 7. COINAGE RETURNS FOR 1911.

The *Tael* is at present the unit of currency for foreign and Chinese commerce. Formerly all foreign transactions in China were paid for either in kind or in Carolus or Spanish dollars, which even to this day are current in two or three of the less important treaty ports.

In large native transactions ingots of silver, known as *shoes*, form the medium of exchange. These are *Sycee*, i.e. pure silver (so called from the mispronunciation of *se-sze*, meaning "silk fine"). *Shoes* range in weight from ½ tael to 100 taels, but never amount to an exact round sum of, say, ten, twenty-five or fifty taels. Shanghai *shoes* weigh about fifty taels, the average fineness being 916·66. After the silver has been cast into *shoes* at the melting houses, these are sent to be tested at the office of the Kung Ku, or public valuers. The fineness is estimated, and the premium or betterness, together with the exact weight, is marked in ink ("chopped"). The fineness is determined by dividing the weight into 100 parts called *touch*; 98 touch means that the ingot contains 98 parts of pure metal to 2 parts of alloy. According to the stamp ("chop") affixed to each ingot the compradore before circulating the *shoe* as currency adds from *nil* up to 3 taels Shanghai weight per 50 taels of actual weight. This addition ranges from *nil* for silver of the Kung Ku standard up to 6 per cent for pure silver of 100 *touch*. A further addition of 2 per cent is made in conformity with "old custom."

1. The Tael

The *Tael* is a weight of silver of a certain degree of fineness. It is represented by no actual coin. The taels used in different parts of the Empire vary in weight, in touch and in value. Mr. H. B. Morse, in his book *The Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire*, states that he has notes of 170 different currencies.

In theory the tael is subdivided decimally into mace, candareens and cash, as follows:—

One Tael = 10 Mace.
One Mace = 10 Candareens.
One Candareen = 10 Cash.

But though in book-keeping the decimal system may be used, the actual exchange value of subsidiary coinage fluctuates to an extraordinary degree. A tael may be worth as little as 800 cash, or as much as 1800 cash, so that one mace (one-tenth of a tael) may mean the transfer of 80 to 180 cash when actual coin is handled, though its nominal value is 100 cash. Different taels are in use in each province in China, and, in many instances, even in the different towns of one province.

The taels which are in most general use are the following:—

1. *The Haikuan, or Customs Tael.*—All duties levied by the Maritime Customs are calculated in this tael, which is a purely arbitrary standard of currency, not used for commercial or business transactions of any other kind. In theory it is a pure silver tael, the equivalent of Mex. $1·50. This tael weighs about 583·3 grains of silver 1000 fine. It is entirely a money of account; duties, as a matter of fact, being paid in the local currency of the port at a rate of exchange settled on the opening of the Customs House at each port. The exchange value of the Haikuan tael during 1918 was as follows:—

MONTH.	ENGLISH.	Francs.	AMERICAN. Gold $. = Hk.Tls.	JAPANESE. Yen.	INDIAN. Rupees.	Hk. Tls. to the £.
	s. *d.*					
January	4 4⅝	6·67	·86	2·25	3·67	4·09
February	4 3⅛	6·47	·88	2·18	3·56	4·21
March	4 2⅝	6·41	·89	2·17	3·53	4·25
April	4 4¼	6·61	·87	2·23	3·64	4·12
May	4 5¼	6·73	·85	2·26	3·70	4·05
June	4 6¾	6·92	·83	2·30	3·82	3·93
July	4 8½	7·16	·80	2·36	3·82	3·81
August	4 9½	7·29	·79	2·38	4·00	3·75
September	5 0¼	7·64	·75	2·48	4·19	3·58
October	5 5¼	7·12½	·69	2·64	4·55	3·30
November	5 1¾	6·74	·73	2·48	4·30	3·49
December	5 1¼	6·63	·74	2·54	4·26	3·52

The exchange rates of the Haikuan tael in foreign currencies are settled each month by the Customs authorities.

2. *The Kuping, or Treasury Tael.*—In this under the Manchus all Government taxes and dues other than Customs Revenue, and those

paid in kind or in copper cash, were calculated. In theory it was uniform throughout the Empire. (Normal paying weight = 573·9 grains ·1000 fine, but the receiving rate is 1·5 grains heavier.)

3. *The Tsaoping, or Shanghai Tael.*—This is the tael in general use in Shanghai, in which foreign exchange rates are quoted by the banks. The weight is 545.25 grains 980 fine.

4. *The Canton Tael*, which is used for weighing bar silver in Hongkong, Shanghai and Canton. (Weight = 579·85 grains 1000 fine.)

In the exchange of one tael into another three elements have to be considered: the weight of the respective taels; the fineness or touch of the silver; and convention, premium or "old custom." The complications which result from this form of calculation may be judged from the operations followed in converting Kuping or Treasury taels into Shanghai taels.

The element of weight is first considered. One hundred Kuping taels (by weight) are equivalent to 101·80 Tsaoping taels (by weight).

Next, for difference of touch on, say, two shoes, 5·6 is added, making 107·40.

By Shanghai convention, an old custom or understanding, the origin of which is lost in obscurity, this sum is now divided by ·98, which increases it to 109·592. To this 0·008 is added for meltage fees, and the value of 100 Kuping taels is then found to be Shanghai taels 109·60.

At Tientsin a "premium" is added instead of dividing by a "convention" ratio.

In theory, the Haikuan, Kuping and Canton taels are all of pure silver, though 100 Canton taels of pure silver may exchange into 111·05 to 111·20 Shanghai taels according to the quantity of silver sent in to be melted.

The following table shows the approximate exchange value between a variety of taels:—

100 Kuping taels = 109·60 Shanghai taels.
100 Haikuan taels = 101·642395 Kuping taels.
,, ,, ,, = 101·75 local taels at Amoy.
,, ,, ,, = 106·40 ,, ,, Chefoo.
,, ,, ,, = 104·16 ,, ,, Chinkiang.
,, ,, ,, = 110 ,, ,, Foochow.
,, ,, ,, = 108·75 ,, ,, Hankow.
,, ,, ,, = 113·76 ,, ,, Hoihow.
,, ,, ,, = 109·65 ,, ,, Ichang.
,, ,, ,, = 104·37 ,, ,, Kiukiang.
,, ,, ,, = 108·50 ,, ,, Newchwang.
,, ,, ,, = 105·83 ,, ,, Ningpo.
,, ,, ,, = 110·57 ,, ,, Pakhoi.
,, ,, ,, = 111·40 ,, ,, Shanghai.
,, ,, ,, = 110·15 ,, ,, Swatow.
,, ,, ,, = 111·32 ,, ,, Tamsui.
,, ,, ,, = 105 ,, ,, Tientsin.
,, ,, ,, = 103 ,, ,, Wenchow.
,, ,, ,, = 104·16 ,, ,, Wuhu.

§ 2. The Dollar

As the tael is not a coin but a weight, and copper coin is too bulky for ordinary cash transactions in the treaty ports and also in the provinces, it is customary to use a dollar coin for domestic and other retail transactions. The exchange value between local dollars and local taels fluctuates considerably, and into this fluctuation many elements quite apart from the intrinsic value of either currency enter. Various dollars are in circulation in different parts of the Empire, some foreign, such as the Hongkong and Straits dollars, the Mexican dollar (which is the one in general use in Shanghai and the neighbourhood) and the old Spanish or Carolus dollar. Various reasons may cause a certain kind of dollar to become popular over a large or small area and to appreciate in value to 30 or 40 per cent above its intrinsic value. In some of the smaller treaty ports, such as Amoy, Ningpo, Hangchow or Wuhu, the Spanish dollar is most in favour to this day. Though lighter than the Mexican dollar, it may be in such demand as to fetch $1·40 Mex. At present the Hongkong and Straits dollar is "fashionable" in certain cotton-growing districts, and is at a premium compared with other coins of about the same intrinsic value. But both the British and the Spanish dollar if used in other districts would probably be at a discount to the local Chinese coin. Thus the actual value of the silver in the dollar coin, whether minted in Spain, Mexico, the Straits or one of the provincial mints, is often a less important factor in the exchange values between the different dollars themselves and the local taels than the fleeting popular fancy for this or that particular coin. Local note issues, which may be at a premium or a discount when compared with those of other ports, add to the perplexing chaos of Chinese silver currency. Chinese dollars have been issued by various provincial mints, but their great drawback has been that they are at a discount in all provinces but the one in which they are minted. There are more than ten varieties of Chinese dollars in circulation. The Mexican dollar for the past fifty years has been the most generally popular, but is now being gradually superseded by dollars coined in the Chinese mints. In 1911 more Mexican dollars were exported from than imported into China.

In the spring of 1912 a number of commemoration dollars and 20-cent pieces bearing the effigy of Dr. Sun Yat-sen were coined at the Nanking mint.

§ 3. Subsidiary Coinage

Throughout China subsidiary silver coins, known as 5, 10 and 20-cent pieces (and nominally bearing a ratio of 1-20th, 1-10th and 1-5th of the dollar) but stamped with a tael value (the "10-cent piece," for instance, is stamped 7·2 candareens), are in circulation. The ratio that these coins bear to the dollar varies to an extraordinary degree. At times eleven "10-cent pieces" may be obtained for a dollar, while at others ten "10-cent coins" cannot be got at exchange shops. Popular fancy plays its part in connection with subsidiary silver coinage also.

Besides subsidiary silver coins there is the copper currency, which is really the currency of the people. Two kinds are in universal use; 10-cash pieces (cents), which are supposed to contain 95 per cent of copper and are about the size of a halfpenny (analysis of a large number of coins gives the average composition as follows: copper, 88·75 per cent; pewter, 8·80 per cent; lead, 2·45 per cent); and one-cash pieces, which are coined in large and small sizes, have a square hole in the middle, and contain only 50 per cent of copper. Since 1904, when the minting of copper 10-cash coins was begun, the provincial mints have been turning out 10-cash coins in such numbers that they have depreciated in value at an alarming rate. In 1905–6 the value of a Shanghai tael was 1100 to 1200 cash. It has since been between 1800 and 2000 cash.

During recent years provincial mints have been permitted to issue silver and copper subsidiary coinage *for purposes of revenue*, and this accounts for the enormous over-issue, and consequent depreciation in value of these coins.

§ 4. Bank-notes

The foreign banks having branches in China issue notes for taels and dollars, in various multiples, in the local currency of the places where they have branches. Their note issue is, of course, restricted by their regulations.

Bank-notes are also issued by numerous native banks and provincial governments, and add to the financial chaos, inasmuch as these issues are not always restricted by considerations of adequate reserves for redemption. The note currency was increased during the Revolution by the almost indiscriminate issue of military notes, which the Government has since been at pains to redeem to some extent.

A return made in 1915 gave the amount of paper money in circulation at $172,000,000, as follows:—

	Amount issued.	Market value.	Discounted value.
Anhui	780,000	At par	780,000
Chekiang	2,439,000	Less 10%	2,195,100
Chihli	6,400	,,	5,760
Three Eastern Provinces	34,650,157	Less 38%	21,483,097
Fukien	300,000	Less 10%	270,000
Honan	2,200,000	At par	2,200,000
Hunan	36,000,000	Less 44%	14,960,000
Hupeh	30,000,000	Less 20%	24,000,000
Ili and Sinkiang	7,000,000	,,	5,600,000
Jehol	15,000	Less 10%	13,500
Kiangsi	8,000,000	Less 33%	5,360,000
Kuangsi	3,000,000	Less 10%	2,700,000
Kuangtung	32,000,000	Less 40%	19,200,000
Shansi	720,000	At par	720,000
Shantung	480,000	At par	4,800,000
Shensi and Kansu	7,000,000	Less 10%	6,300,000
Yunnan and Kueichow	4,000,000	Less 30%	2,800,000

Note Redemption

The most business-like and most successful effort in the redemption of depreciated notes was made in Kuangtung Province in July, 1914, under joint foreign and Chinese control. Notes of the face value of $31,645,504 were redeemed and cancelled at the rate of ·455, and in their stead new Bank of China notes, convertible into silver, were issued to the amount of $14,398,710. Funds for the silver reserve, to the amount of £1,000,000 sterling, were released by the Salt Administration from the proceeds of the 1913 Redemption Loan.

The military notes in Chekiang and Anhui were also called in, while the Bank of China undertook the work of redeeming the depreciated notes in Kirin, Heilungkiang and Szechuan, as well as the paper money of the Chin Feng Bank and the Kiangsi Republican Bank.

§ 5. Currency Questions

As an illustration of some of the currency vagaries to be met with in China, the following report of the Commissioner of Customs at Amoy on the position at that port in 1913–14 is of interest :—

"One of the features of the trade of this port, which has been a puzzle to many and does not seem to have been yet specially treated of in any previous Trade Report, is that regarding the local currency. The unit of this currency is the so-called 'Spanish Dollar,' which, though actually in use in the 60's, had totally disappeared from the market by the end of the 70's. Since then, however, it has been retained as a book unit by the local agency of the Hongkong and Shanghai Bank and made to rule practically all commercial and banking transactions of the port. The rate of this unit with regard to the silver currency actually handled here—styled 'chopped yen,' and consisting variously of Japanese yen (coined for Formosa), Hongkong dollars, Mexican dollars, and Indo-China piasters, all considered, *mirabile dictu*, to be mutually equivalent in value—is fixed from day to day by the aforesaid bank. It varies generally from about 2 per cent premium to par, but may even go below par in times when local silver coins are scarce, as in 1911, when it actually touched 3½ per cent discount. The sole criterion for this fluctuation is the bank's want or superfluity of silver dollars, which is practically synonymous with the port's demand or supply of coined currency. Some other banks established in more recent years—the Bank of Taiwan and the Chinese Official Bank of Communications—have local silver currency, yen or dollars, as their unit, but this has not affected the paramount position of the Spanish dollar as the basis of trade and foreign exchange transactions at Amoy. From a currency point of view the position is a most remarkable one, as the only legal tender for daily purposes consists practically of checks on one bank or silver coins at rates fluctuating daily at the will of that same bank. Though in theory the Spanish dollar is represented by 72 candareens Canton weight of current dollars or silver of ·900 fineness, in practice sycee is not obtainable, and the bank reserves the right to refuse the acceptance of dollars by weight, taking them by count only, with the interposition of its daily rate to arrive at Spanish dollars. Needless to say, this rate also varies for buying and selling. The system of handling dollars by count only has become the rule, since the bank's policy of accepting only clean or slightly chopped dollars has had the effect of driving the old mutilated cup-and-saucer-like coins to other ports or into the melting pot.

" Notwithstanding all the above peculiarities, the Amoy currency system presents distinct advantages for the trade as compared with the neighbouring coast ports. By adhering to an extinct currency and continuing that as a book or bank unit the bank is able to keep its unit mostly always at par with the Hongkong dollar and quote for its sterling exchange almost invariably the identical figures ruling for the day at Hongkong. The Amoy merchant thus obtains in his foreign dealings the benefit of a sterling exchange rate very closely following the price of bar silver and is freed from the additional uncertainties introduced by varying supply and demand of the local currency, which may amount to a considerable percentage in abnormal times or through artificial 'riggings' of the money market. The Amoy currency system may thus be quoted as an object lesson to show how under a heterogeneous and irregular coinage system a fictitious bank unit may be resorted to almost unconsciously, with great steadying effect, and how easy it is even for a single bank to maintain such a fictitious unit under conditions which are far removed from carrying any force in the nature of legal compulsion. In this direction would seem ultimately to lie a practicable road toward currency reform and unification for China."

§ 6. **Currency Reform**

By Article II of the Mackay Treaty between Great Britain and China, signed at Shanghai in September, 1902, " China agrees to take the necessary steps to provide for a uniform national coinage which shall be legal tender in the payment of all duties, taxes, and other obligations, throughout the Empire by British as well as Chinese subjects."

In 1908 an Imperial Decree announced the adoption of the Kuping or Treasury tael as the unit of coinage, and ordered tael coins to be struck. Fortunately, however, wiser counsels prevailed ; a less cumbrous coin was decided upon, and two years later the dollar was adopted as the unit of currency of the Empire. The memorial, decree, and regulations issued on this subject in May, 1910, were published in the China Year Book for 1912.

Dr. G. Vissering, at that time President of " De Javasche Bank," was appointed in October, 1911, Monetary Adviser to the Chinese Government. He was succeeded in November, 1912, by Dr. W. A. Roest, but on the death of the latter in January, 1913, Dr. Vissering again took up the post of Honorary Adviser on currency matters. A Currency Commission was appointed, with Dr. Chang Tsung-yuen as Chairman, to consider the question of currency reform, and the following draft-regulations received the approval of the President and Cabinet in January, 1914 :—

The National Currency

ARTICLE 1. The right of minting and issuance of national currency shall belong solely to the Government.

ARTICLE 2. The unit of the national coin shall be called *yuan*, and the *yuan* shall contain six mace, four candareens and eight li (*kuping* weight) or 23·97795048 grammes of pure silver.

ARTICLE 3. The different kinds of national coins are as follows:—

A. Four kinds of silver coins are—
  (1) 1 *yuan*.
  (2) ½ *yuan*.
  (3) 20 cents piece.
  (4) 10 cents piece.

B. One kind of nickel coin:
  (1) 5 cent piece.

C. Five kinds of copper coins:
  (1) 2 cent copper piece.
  (2) 1 cent copper piece.
  (3) 5 li piece.
  (4) 2 li piece.
  (5) 1 li piece.

ARTICLE 4. The value of the national coin shall be in decimal progression. One-tenth of a *yuan* shall make a chu or a 10 cent piece. One-hundredth of a *yuan* shall make 1 feng or cent, and one-thousandth of a *yuan* shall make 1 li.

ARTICLE 5. The weight and fineness of the coins shall be as follows:—

1. 1 *yuan*, gross weight 72 candareens with 90 per cent silver and 10 per cent copper.
2. 50 cent piece, gross weight 32·4 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 30 per cent copper.
3. 20 cent piece, gross weight 12 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 30 per cent copper.
4. 10 cent piece, gross weight 6 candareens with 70 per cent silver and 30 per cent copper.
5. 5 cent nickel piece, gross weight 7 candareens with 25 per cent nickel and 75 per cent copper.
6. 2 cent copper piece, gross weight 28 candareens with 95 per cent copper and 4 per cent pewter and 1 per cent lead.
7. 1 cent copper piece, gross weight 18 candareens with its fineness same as 2 cent copper piece.
8. 5 li copper piece, gross weight 9 candareens with its fineness same as above.
9. 2 li copper piece, gross weight 4·5 candareens with its fineness same as above.
10. 1 li copper piece, gross weight 2·5 candareens with its fineness same as above.

ARTICLE 6. No restrictions shall be placed upon the use of 1 *yuan* piece. The amount of 50 per cent pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed twenty dollars. The amount of 20 cent and 10 cent pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed five dollars. The amount of nickel or copper pieces involved in one transaction shall not exceed one dollar. This restriction shall not be applied to the collection of taxes and the exchanges in the national banks.

ARTICLE 7. The designs of the national coins shall be promulgated by a Provisional Order.

ARTICLE 8. The ratio of the difference between the weight of silver coins and that of the legal tender shall not exceed 3/1000.

The ratio of the difference between the total weight of per 1000 pieces of the silver coins and the legal weight of that amount of coins shall not exceed 3/10,000.

ARTICLE 9. The ratio of the difference between the fineness of any piece of silver coins and the legal fineness shall not exceed 3/1000.

ARTICLE 10. When, on account of wear and tear, 1 *yuan* silver piece loses one per cent of its weight, it may be exchanged at the Government bank for a new dollar. When, on account of wear and tear, the 50 cent silver piece and other kinds of coins lose five per cent of the legal weight, they may be exchanged at the Government banks for new coins.

ARTICLE 11. When a coin is found to be mutilated purposely, no one shall be compelled to accept it.

ARTICLE 12. When the Government consents to coin 1 *yuan* silver pieces for those who give to it silver bullion, 6 li per *yuan* shall be charged as minting fee.

ARTICLE 13. This law shall be in force on the day of its promulgation.

Regulations for the Enforcement of the Currency Law

ARTICLE 1. The national coins must be used as medium in the transaction of any financial dealings in the country. Special regulations in the Currency Regulations must also be observed.

ARTICLE 2. The Government shall exchange the silver dollars coined by the old mints with the national coins and remint the dollars.

Within a certain period, the old dollar shall possess the same value as the national *yuan*, but as to the length of that period, a Provisional Order shall be issued to fix it.

ARTICLE 3. The Government shall replace all the old silver pieces of the different denominations, old copper pieces and cash with the national coins. After recalling them, the Government shall remint them, but within a certain fixed period the old coins shall be allowed to be circulated at the market prices.

If the old coins are used to pay taxes, every month all the public offices shall issue notices fixing the current rate at which the offices shall receive old coins. The offices shall take as the current rate an average of the rates of exchange during the previous month. The period for the circulation of the old coins shall be fixed by a Provisional Order.

ARTICLE 4. If taxes are remitted with silver bullion or if anyone wants the Government to mint silver coins for him, in the calculation one dollar shall contain 65·4 candareens. Bullion of other fineness and weight shall be converted according to a Table to be attached.

ARTICLE 5. In the public offices where the receipts and expenditures are calculated in taels, the amount should be converted into the term of *yuan* in accordance with Article 4. At places where the receipts and disbursements consist of copper coins and cash, the public office shall report to the Ministry of Finance the actual sum of receipts and disbursements with the request for permission to convert the coin into the term of *yuan*.

Article 6. In the collection of various revenues and taxes, Articles 4, 5 and 6 shall be observed. In the calculation, the li shall be the smallest of denominations. All the decimal fractions of the li shall be treated thus:—when the figure is 4, it shall be discarded, and when it is 5, it shall be considered as one to be added to the other integers.

Article 7. When the debts among the people themselves are calculated in the term of taels, they should be converted into the term of the national coin. Where the old subsidiary coins are involved, Article 6 shall be observed in the conversion into the national coins. If the sums in the deeds, contracts and promissory notes are not converted into the term of *yuan*, and if any law suit rises, the exchange rate on the day of the promulgation of these regulations shall be considered as a standard.

Article 8. Within the domain of China no one shall object to the use of the national coins.

Article 9. If anybody disregards Article 4 of the law for the national currency and Article 8 of the regulations for the enforcement of the law of the national currency, the concerned may bring a law suit against him, and when convicted, a fine of from 10 dollars to 1000 dollars shall be imposed on the offender. Any official or any member connected with the Government enterprises who commits the same offence, is liable to pay a fine of from 50 to 3000 dollars after the same procedure has been observed.

Article 10. The area and the date for the enforcement of these regulations shall be fixed by a Provisional Order.

Criticism was directed against this Currency Law on the following grounds (*inter alia*):—[1]

1. The omission of a definite statement to the effect that Government institutions will always accept the token coins at their face value.
2. The excessive margin of minting profit in the case of 2 cent coins (Article 5, *6*), which should weigh 36 per cent more (222 grains instead of 163 grains), if they are to have the same intrinsic value in relation to face value as the present 10 cash copper coins.
3. The 5 cent nickel coin (Article 5, *5*) would represent even a greater margin of minting profit, as its intrinsic value would be only about one-tenth of its face value.

It was noted that, in spite of the declared intention of the Government to regulate the output of its mints to the needs of the country, enormous quantities of 10 cash copper coins were issued by the Government mints within six to twelve months after the publication of the Currency Law, with the result that the whole copper coinage was still further depreciated. According to a statement in the Chinese press in October, 1915, the Ministry of Finance had already instructed the Yunnan Mint to proceed with the issue of 5 cent nickel coins.

In a statement issued by the Ministry of Finance to a foreign newspaper (*The China Press*, Shanghai), in October, 1915, the steps taken towards currency reform are thus described: "The plan was to coin first new coins of one dollar, in order to secure uniformity, the mould to be manufactured and issued to the branch mints by the Central Mint. Coining is now in progress in the Tientsin and Nanking mints, and the coins are gradually issued. The old dollars are now permitted to be circulated with the new coins, and are gradually being called in by the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications to be re-minted. Subsidiary coins of 10 cents and 20 cents will also shortly be struck and issued. Two half dollars, twenty 5 cents, or ten 10 cent pieces will be changed for a new dollar permanently without change. The subsidiary coins for legal tender will be restricted in conformity with the general rules of currency. The old subsidiary coins will, after the issue of the new coins, be current according to their market value for a time, and then be gradually called in and re-coined.

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[1] *British Chamber of Commerce Journal* (Shanghai), Dec., 1915.

In August, 1918, the Minister of Finance, Tsao Ju-lin, in a petition to the President, urged that steps should be taken for the issue of Gold Currency Notes and for the organization of a Currency Bureau. He stated that the scheme outlined by the Law of 1914 had been carried out and had been successful, and added that another step in advance was required to achieve complete success. Amongst the arguments advanced in favour of a gold currency were: 1. That China's foreign indebtedness and the indemnity, amounting to one-third of her annual budget, were in gold currency; (2) that exchange fluctuations were a serious hindrance to the development of trade; and (3) that the most advanced nations of the world use gold.

A Presidential mandate issued on August 10, 1918, gave effect to the Finance Minister's proposals, and promulgated the required rules and regulations. The outcry raised against the scheme, however, caused an announcement to be made to the effect that it was not proposed to put the regulations into force at once.

The regulations in question were the following:—

Regulations for the issue of Gold Currency Notes.

1. With a view to facilitating international trade and preparing for the adoption of a currency system with a gold basis the bank or banks appointed by the Currency Bureau shall be allowed to issue gold currency notes.

2. The unit of the gold currency shall be one gold dollar which shall contain 0.725.318 Kungfun of pure gold, that is, 2.01688 candareen of Kuping tael.

One-tenth part of a good dollar shall be called a "*cho*," one hundredth a "*fun*," one thousandth a "*li*," etc.

3. The denominations of the gold currency notes shall be: one dollar, five dollars, ten dollars, twenty dollars, fifty dollars, and one hundred dollars.

The Government may order the bank or banks appointed by the Bureau to issue gold currency notes of small denominations, such as five-cho (half a dollar), two-cho (one-fifth of a dollar), and one-cho (one-tenth of a dollar), and the Government Mint may be ordered to mint copper coins of one "fun" denomination.

4. Before the coinage of such gold dollars the holder of the gold currency notes may remit the money to other cities in this country or to foreign countries through the specified banks and after the coinage of such gold dollars, the holder of such gold currency notes may exchange them for gold coins as well as remit them to any city in the country or to any foreign country.

The gold currency notes may be exchanged at the specified banks for foreign gold coins or string gold. All ornaments made of pure gold shall be considered equivalent to sterling gold and they shall be valued according to the quantity of pure gold they contain.

5. The proportionate value of the gold currency notes and the national currency now in circulation will necessarily not always be the same. But it shall be made known to the public by notifications issued by the specified banks from time to time, and gold currency notes and current silver coins in circulation may be exchanged at the said banks at the notified value.

6. The specified banks shall have an adequate gold reserve against the amount of notes issued. This gold reserve shall either be in our national gold dollars, or gold bullion, or foreign gold coins deposited with the exchange banks in both Chinese and foreign commercial ports. The public shall be notified by the specified banks once every ten days about the amount of the gold reserve and the places where this reserve is deposited.

This gold reserve shall be subject to the inspection of the special delegates of the Currency Bureau at any time.

7. The gold currency notes may be used in public and private dealings at the proportionate value as notified from time to time by the specified banks.

The use of the gold currency notes shall not be restricted.

8. The specified banks may deposit and carry on other forms of business with the gold currency notes.

9. These regulations shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

Rules for the Organisation of the Currency Bureau.

1. The Currency Bureau shall be under the direct control of the Premier and take charge of the following affairs:

(*a*) Those in connection with currency.
(*b*) Those in connection with the issue of notes.
(*c*) Other matters in connection with currency.

2. The following officers shall be appointed to the Currency Bureau:—

One Director-General: this post shall be held by the Minister of Finance concurrently.

One Governor; to be specially appointed.

One adviser: to be engaged.

An unlimited number of honorary advisers: to be engaged.

3. In the Currency Bureau, departments shall be established and members appointed to manage the affairs of the respective departments. But before the establishment of such departments, an Investigation Committee shall be appointed with a certain number of members, which shall be decided upon by order of the Bureau.

4. For copying documents and the management of miscellaneous affairs clerks shall be employed in the said Bureau.

5. All the Mints, Printing Offices, Paper Factories, and the Superintendents of the Banks under the control of the Ministry of Finance shall be under the supervision and direction of the Currency Bureau.

6. The Currency Bureau may issue orders independently or, when necessary, for the issuance of Cabinet orders, or issue jointly with the Ministry of Finance.

7. The Currency Bureau shall be established for a period of ten years.

8. The Regulations governing management of affairs in the Currency Bureau shall be drafted separately and enforced in due course.

9. The Rules shall be enforced from the date of promulgation.

A HISTORY OF CHINA'S CURRENCY

The Finance Minister attached to this petition the following history of China's currency :—

I. *Brass Cash.*—Brass cash was first minted during the Chou dynasty, The minting was continued by all the succeeding dynasties, each new emperor minting new cash bearing his own title. The cash is round in form with a square hole in the centre, the diameter and weight differing. Cash during the second year of Shun-Chi (1644–1662) weighed as much as 2 mace and 2 candareens. Light ones minted during Kuang-Hsü's reign weighed only 6 candareens, being one-cash pieces. Big cash were also minted (during the Taiping rebellion) as 5-cash and 10-cash pieces. Since the introduction of the copper coin, the issue of brass cash has gradually decreased on account of illicit melting, and is no longer minted. Brass recently rose in value, and enormous amounts of cash are being melted. In treaty ports, and big cities with good communications facilities, brass cash is becoming rarer every day, though a certain amount of cash may be found in out-of-the-way interior places. The exact amount of brass cash now extant cannot be ascertained, because figures showing the amount of cash minted by various Emperors are not available.

II. *The Copper Coin.*—The minting of copper coin (10-cash pieces) began in Kuangtung in the 26th year of Kuang-Hsü (1900), the year of the Boxer trouble. An Imperial edict was issued in 1901 ordering the coastal and river provinces to copy Kuangtung's example for the reason that cash were becoming scarce and insufficient for circulation. Then began the era in which the provinces vied with one another, and flooded the market with an abnormally large output of copper coin. The copper coin was originally intended for use as a substitute for cash. But the basic trouble is that there is no legal ratio between cash and dollar and cash and tael, the exchange rate being controlled by factors of supply and demand between copper and silver. Therefore, the ratio between the copper coin and the dollar and tael is also subjected to erratic fluctuation according to supply and demand of either of the three currencies. The copper coin is not a token coin. Moreover, the amount of pure copper contained in the copper coin is different from the amount contained in ten brass cash, although it is intended to represent ten cash. Because of these differences in weight and fineness, different exchange rates arise between the brass cash and the copper coin. So it happens that each of these three currencies—silver, copper coin and brass cash—goes its own way and has no connection with the other in the ratio of value. There is no system between these three currencies which could come under one fixed ruling.

At first the Government issued regulations ordering that 100 copper coins should be equal to one dollar: and one copper cash should represent 10 brass cash, showing that the Tsing Government intended to use copper coin as a token coin of the silver dollar. But the Government did not understand the underlying principles governing the standard coin and the token coin, and did not take steps to maintain the legal ratio by ordering State banks to exchange cash for copper coin or *vice versa* at fixed legal rates. The Government did not put restrictions on the amount to be used and the amount to be minted. So confusion set in. Copper coins were minted by as many as seventeen mints simultaneously—at Tientsin, Mukden, Kirin, Honan, Shantung, Nanking, Soochow, Tsingkiangpu, Anhui, Hupeh, Hunan, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kuangtung, Szechuan, and Yunnan. During the Republic only eight mints were retained, viz., Tientsin, Mukden, Nanking, Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuan, Kuangtung, Yunnan. The Chunking mint also minted 200-cash pieces, 100-cash pieces, 50-cash pieces, 20-cash pieces, and 5-cash pieces in copper coin. The 10-cash coin is universally minted by all mints. At present about 130 coppers are worth one dollar. The total amount of coppers minted by all the mints from the beginning to December, 1917, is as follows:—

10-cash pieces	31,682,102,306
20-cash pieces	386,292,308
50-cash pieces	300,805,522
100-cash pieces	15,699,227
200-cash pieces	3,064,862
1-cash pieces	160,487,661
2-cash pieces	28,718,641
5-cash pieces	37,942,509

III. *The Silver Tael.*—The use of silver as currency in China began in the Sung dynasty, but it was made in the form of a sycee shoe, not as a coin, which practice was maintained even during the latter period of the Tsing dynasty. A sycee shoe is calculated according to weight, regardless of the number of pieces, and there was no legal ratio between the tael and the cash. There are different sycee values owing to the difference in fineness, causing great confusion. For instance, we have seven different kinds of tael in Peking, and six different kinds of tael in

Shanghai. What confusion? Some taels like the Shanghai taels are fictitious. No Shanghai tael sycee is ever minted, but is merely used for calculations. Since the introduction of the silver coin, the use of the tael has greatly decreased. (The Kuping tael is regarded as universal because the Tsing dynasty used it in Government transactions). Since the founding of the Republic public funds are received and disbursed in dollars, not taels; but some interior places still use the tael, and even traders in Shanghai use it. It would perhaps be surprising to learn that there are no less than 65 different kinds of silver tael in China!

IV. *The Silver Dollar.*—The first Chinese silver dollar was minted, strange to say, in Tibet, in the 57th year of Kien Lung (Tsing dynasty). It was called the "Kien Lung precious treasury silver coin." Foreign dollars came into China after the opening of trade with foreign countries, first appearing in Kuangtung, then in Kiangsu, Chekiang, Fukien and other coastal provinces, then in the river provinces, and in Tibet, etc. Minting on a big scale began in the 17th year of Kuang-Hsü in Kuangtung. The coin was called the Kuang-Hsü Yuan-Pao—"precious coin"—and weighed 73 candareens Tsao-ping tael. Other provinces followed suit, the weight and fineness differing and causing confusion. At last in the 29th year of Kuang-Hsü an effort was made to unify the weight and fineness. An Edict was issued to establish a head mint at Tientsin to unify the form of dollar. The head mint was completed in the 31st year of Kuang-Hsü, and was called Hu-pu (Finance Board) Head Mint. Chang Chih-tung and others advocated the minting of a one tael dollar, but the plan was not adopted. In the 4th moon of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung, a law was promulgated fixing 7 mace 2 candareens as the fineness of the standard dollar. The head mint submitted to the Imperial Court a design of a new standard dollar, and engraved the steel dies for minting the new dollar, called Ta-Tsing-Yen-Pi (Ta-Tsing Silver Coin). In the 5th month of the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung (1911) the Nanking and Wuchang Mints began to mint a standard dollar, expecting to issue the same in the 10th moon when the new currency law was to be enforced, but the revolution came in the 8th moon (October 10), and the standard dollar circulated earlier than expected for Republican soldiers' pay. Later Szechuan minted the Ta-Han-Yen-Pi (silver coin of the Great Han). In February, 1914, a National Coinage Law was promulgated. The standard dollar under the new law was first minted by the Tientsin mint in December, 1914, and the fineness was fixed at 89 per cent. pure silver instead of 90 per cent. (of Tsing dollar). The mints sold their dollars to banks, etc., just as a shop sells goods, according to market prices. Currency is for use as a medium of exchange of commodities, but the Chinese dollar became itself a commodity, and does not fill the office of a fixed universal medium of exchange for commodities. Foreign banks and big Chinese business transactions are calculated in taels. According to available figures old style dollars minted by all the mints amount to $250,000,000. The average dollars contains about 64 candareens Kuping tael of silver. Some of the old dollars minted by Kuangtung, Tientsin, etc., contain a small percentage of gold, due to incomplete assaying.

V. *The Dime.*—Dimes were first minted in the 20th year of Kuang Hsü, in Kuangtung and Hupeh. Although it ought to be a token coin, yet, strange to say, it is also treated as a commodity, its value fluctuating subject to supply and demand. In the 33rd year of Kuang Hsü the Finance Board got the Imperial sanction for regulations providing that one dollar should equal ten dimes, or 100 coppers or 1,000 cash, all in decimal progress, but this was never actually enforced. Different exchange rates had to be fixed for the dime with respect to the dollar and to the copper. At present $1 exchanges for 11 dimes, and 1 dime for 11 coppers. Old style dimes minted by all mints amount to $370,000,000.

VI. *Standard and Unit.*—Originally the unit was the one-cash piece, and the standard was copper. After the country had been opened to foreign trade, foreign dollars came in, and Chinese dollars were later minted similar to foreign dollars. But as silver and copper coins are not connected with each other, there is no real standard. The currency reform movement began with a telegram from the Grand Council to all provinces (11th moon, 25th year of Kuang Hsü) enquiring whether a one-tael dollar should be minted. Most provinces objected and recommended the continuance of the 72 candareen dollar. Another effort was made in the 29th year of Kuang Hsü when the Government, on account of the great losses incurred on foreign loans and the Indemnity by the fall of silver approached the United States Government with a request for assistance.

America appointed an International Exchange Commission to study and determine the best system for silver-using countries to adopt in instituting a gold standard. Dr. Jenks, on behalf of the commission, came to China and submitted a currency memorandum to the Government recommending a gold exchange standard, and fixing a gold currency unit, while continuing to use silver in the country, at a ratio of 1·32. The Grand Councillors and others opposed the programme and dared not carry it out, but the suggestion served to call the attention of Chinese officials to the importance of currency reform, and a long controversy ensued between officials on the question of a standard. Most of the authorities favoured the use of a silver standard.

In the 4th moon of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung (1910) the Finance Board secured Imperial sanction for the promulgation of regulations fixing silver as the standard with 72 candareens as the unit. In 1911 the Government entered into an agreement with the Group Banks for a loan of £10,000,000 for Manchurian development and currency reform, and appointed delegates to proceed to London to discuss currency reform with currency experts of the countries represented in the Group.

In the 8th moon the Finance Board received Imperial sanction to transform the Currency Investigation Bureau (under Sheng Kung-pao) into the Currency Bureau to take over complete control of currency reform. Enormous amounts of standard dollars and 1-cent token coins were minted, sufficient to enforce the reform scheme. Unfortunately for the scheme the Revolution broke out, and currency was thrown into greater confusion than ever before.

Such was the history of currency in China before the Republic.

In the winter of the first year of the Republic (1912) Dr. Vissering, of

Holland, brought his book on China Currency Reform to Peking, recommending the simultaneous adoption of a gold exchange standard and a silver standard ; the new unit to contain 0·3644883 gram of pure gold ; all books of the State Bank to be written in gold currency ; gold notes to be issued to represent the new gold unit, inconvertible into gold in China but convertible into foreign gold coins in foreign countries where a Chinese reserve is available ; existing Chinese and foreign silver and be copper coins to be allowed to circulate according to their intrinsic value, until several tens of years afterwards when China would be strong and able to prohibit counterfeiting ; the ratio then to be fixed at 21·1, and silver dollars to represent the gold unit to be minted, thus introducing in its entirety the gold exchange standard. The book produced a good deal of discussion among officials and people.

VII. *National Coinage Law.*—This law was promulgated on March 8, 1914, fixing silver as the standard, and making a 72-candareen dollar as the unit, and to be called one yuan ; token coins to be in decimal progression. The purpose of this was to unify the multifarious currencies, to recall old dollars and coins, and to issue new standard coins in their stead. Reforms already carried out in this connection are as follow :—

(1) The design of the dollar has been unified, bearing the portrait of Yuan Shih-kai, a better course than that which was formerly in vogue when each province had its own design, and the coin of one province could not be circulated in other provinces. The Yuan dollar can be used anywhere, without restriction. Token coins such as the half-yuan, 20-cent pieces and 10-cent pieces were also minted, the designs being issued by the head mint to the various mints.

(2) The weight and fineness were fixed, the fineness being 89 per cent. pure silver, each dollar to weigh 72 candareens Kuping, the net amount of silver being 64·08 candareens. The maximum variation in weight and fineness allowed is $\frac{3}{1000}$th, any coins found showing variation to be re-minted. All mints are required strictly to observe this law. The mints send specimen dollars to the Ministry of Finance to be assayed and tested, and the banks on receiving new dollars also send specimen dollars to the Ministry to be assayed.

(3) To maintain decimal progression, a mint is not allowed to overproduce. The Bank of China and the Bank of Communications are ordered to exchange standard coins at legal rates, and the Government is enforcing the law gradually. Success has already been attained in Chihli ; Shantung, Shansi, Honan, Kiangsu, Anhui, Chekiang, Fukien and Kuangtung will be dealt with as the second stage ; Kansu and other provinces as the third, and Manchuria and other provinces as the fourth.

(4) The market rate of standard coins to be abolished in order to avoid fluctuation. Formerly coins were treated as goods, with market prices, because dollars varied in fineness and weight, and because the Government used the tael in public funds. Now coins have been unified, and the Government uses the dollar in public funds. The Government now allows people to bring silver to the mint, and on payment of six li (six candareens) per dollar as minting expenses, they can obtain dollars for silver. With free coinage the market fluctuations will be naturally

abolished. The market price of old style dollars is now gradually coming to the same level as the legal rate, showing the success of the Government scheme.

The Government's Policy

The Government is recalling the old dollars and destroying them. The mints up to February, 1918, have minted 184,946,487 pieces of one yuan new dollars and destroyed 51,679,151 old dollars. (After setting forth the reasons for adopting a gold currency and for the issue of gold notes, the memorandum continues):—

VIII. *Why a Gold Note is necessary* (preliminary to a gold standard).—Although it is imperative for China to adopt a gold standard, we have to take into consideration the difficulties of carrying out such a measure. In the first place, China does not produce much gold, and does not hold much gold. It would be difficult, therefore, to mint gold coins at once. Secondly, the normal ratio between gold and silver is disturbed by the European war, and it is not advisable at present to fix the legal ratio. In the circumstances it is necessary to make some modifications in methods in carrying out our programme. We will adopt the suggestions made by a former Secretary of State for Finance of the United States, and the suggestions of Dr. Vissering, modified to suit present conditions in China, and fix a gold unit called the Chin-yuan (gold dollar) to contain 0·752318 gram, equal to 2·01688 candareens, Kuping weight. One-tenth of a gold yuan should be called a gold dime; $\frac{1}{100}$th should be called a feng; $\frac{1}{1000}$th should be called a li: all in decimal progression. The Government will permit the Bank of China and the Bank of Communications to issue gold notes. These two banks will keep a separate set of books in gold currency. The notes will be used in deposits, loans, and other transactions, to gather together the people's surplus gold and to make people accustomed to the use of gold. On the other hand, the Government will foster the growth of China's international trade and increase the circulation of gold notes so as to secure a big gold reserve, and at the proper moment the Government will declare the ratio between gold and silver and enforce the gold standard. Then the gold note or the gold dollar will take the place of the silver dollar, and the silver dollar may be gradually recalled or used as a token coin of the gold yuan, and the token coins provided in the National Coinage Law will continue to be used as token coins of the gold yuan. In this way no disturbance or panic will be experienced by the market and the gold standard will come into force automatically.

IX. *Unification of Copper and Silver Coins.*—The problem which must be solved before the adoption of the gold standard is the clearing up of existing currency confusion and entanglements. The Government hopes to accomplish this by rigidly enforcing the National Coinage Law to unify the various existing coins. (The methods here described are the same as those laid down in the detailed regulations governing the operation of the law.)

Method 1.—(*a*) *Relating to New Silver and Copper Coins.*—At present, although the Tientsin mint is called the head mint, it has no real power over other mints, which act independently. This is a serious obstruction to currency unification. The first step is, therefore, this: The Government will effect the unification of the various mints. At present there are too many mints. We will reduce the number and make Tientsin the head mint. The Nanking mint will be moved to Shanghai; the Wuchang mint will be moved to Hankow; while the Canton mint will remain. Thus we will have three provincial mints, viz. at Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton, which will be called branch mints. The removal of the Nanking and Wuchang mints is proposed because Shanghai and Hankow are great trading centres, and to establish mints there would effect great saving in transportation expenses, etc. Another reason is that the mint authorities can easily feel the pulse of market requirements and judge the supply and demand at these trading centres. The administration and the employment of officers for three branch mints will be under the control of the head mint, as also the control of the weight and fineness of coins, etc., and will be subject to inspection by the head mint.

(*b*) To secure the confidence of the public in new coins it is imperative to remove all doubts in regard to weight and fineness. So far the mints have strictly observed the requirements of the Coinage Law. To provide additional caution we propose to establish the National Coin Assay Bureau. There is an essay office in the Ministry now, but the scope will be enlarged, and wider powers to control the weight and fineness of coins from all mints will be given. The Assay Bureau will send inspectors to inspect the working of all mints, take specimen coins and assay them. They will also buy coins from the market and assay them, and the result will be recorded in a statement to be published every month. The Assay Bureau may engage a foreign assayist to do the assay work and to inspect mints.

(*c*) The Currency Bureau will have a Coin Examination Committee to be organised as follows: One senator; two members of the Finance Ministry, one of whom to be a member of the Currency Bureau; five members from the Chambers of Commerce of Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, and Canton—one member from each place; one chemist professor of a State University; one member of the Bank of China; and one member of the Bank of Communications. Foreign business men may be engaged as advisors.

(*d*) The Banks of China and Communications will be appointed to circulate the standard coins and do exchange operations at legal rates. These two banks may appoint other banks to do similar work.

METHOD 2.—*Foreign dollars and Chinese old dollars.*—(*a*) The Government will order that after a certain date mints shall not be allowed to mint old style dollars.

(*b*) The Government will recall and destroy foreign dollars and restrict the import of foreign dollars.

(*c*) The Government will order that before a certain date people shall be at liberty to send in old and foreign dollars to be exchanged for standard dollars, after which date foreign and old dollars will not be regarded as dollars, but as so much bullion and worth only the intrinsic value of the silver they contain.

(*d*) All public offices, such as telegraph, post and tax offices, shall send old and foreign dollars collected as revenue, etc., to the Bank of China, which will send them to the mint to be exchanged for standard dollars.

METHOD 3.—*Unification in Book-keeping.*—Some traders still use taels in their book-keeping and transactions. With strict enforcement of the new law the day will come when the Government will find it practicable to abolish altogether the sycee tael and the brass cash, the only thing needed being the confidence of the people in the standard coins.

The Government will order all public offices, including the Maritime Customs, to adopt the *dollar* only in their book-keeping. The treaty nations will be consulted regarding the conversion of the tael collections of the Maritime Customs into dollars at rates fixed by the Currency Bureau. The Government will require all commercial transactions to be recorded in terms of dollars.

One fact to be noted is, that fewer and fewer one-dollar pieces will be minted hereafter, and their place will be taken by the half-dollar pieces because the half-dollar piece is destined to be the token coin equal in value to one gold yuan. The above is the Government's policy in regard to hard metal currencies.

X. *China's Paper Currency.*—Paper currency was used in China as early as the Sung Dynasty, and was continued in the Yuan and Ming Dynasties. The Sung Dynasty note is called a Chiao-tzu-hui note. In the Yuan Dynasty Chiao-tsao and Pao-tsao notes were issued. In the Ming Dynasty Ta-ming-pao-tsao notes were issued. In the Tsing Dynasty Tsao-kuan notes were issued during Shun Chih's reign, and Pao-tsao notes in Hsien Feng's reign. These are all State notes. Silver notes and cash notes were issued in Peking in Hsien Feng's time, and the Government banks were established in Peking and other cities as exchange agencies.

In the third moon of the thirty-first year of Kuang Hsü the Hupu Bank issued notes. In the first moon of the thirty-fourth year of Kuang Hsü the Hupu (Finance Ministry) Bank was changed into the Ta-Ching Bank as a State bank, with privilege of note issue. Up to the sixth moon of the third year of Hsuan Tung (1911) the Ta-Ching Bank issued tael notes to the amount of Tls. 5,438,910·75, and dollar notes to the amount of $12,459,907·89.

After the Revolution of 1911 all Ta-Ching Bank notes were recalled. The Ta-Ching Bank was transformed into the Bank of China, whose charter was promulgated in April, 1913, with the privilege of note issue.

The Bank of Communications was established in the thirty-third year of Kuang Hsü; Imperial permission was secured by the Board of Communications and Posts. The charter was promulgated in March, 1914, with the privilege of note issue.

The Ping-shih (Market Adjustment) Bank of the Finance Ministry was established in the third year of the Republic (1914) at Paoting, and in Peking and Tientsin in 1916. It issues copper coin notes.

Up to December, 1917, the Bank of China issued in all $71,892,962 of notes, including $32,089,059 Peking notes. The Bank of Communications issued in all $28,027,123 notes, including $17,585,527 Peking notes.

Great confusion was caused by the note issues of provincial banks.

In Kuangtung provincial notes were recalled, after one month's hard work, in July, 1914, $31,645,504 worth of notes being redeemed at a arbitrary rate of 455 exchanged against $14,398,710 Bank of China notes. The Central Government sent a big sum for this purpose. Conditions are very bad in Hunan, Hupeh, Szechuan, Manchuria, and Sinkiang.

The Government policy is to restrict provincial issues and to let only the two Government banks issue notes. The Government will order the two banks to secure an adequate reserve to cover their note issue and to concentrate their reserves at six trade centres, viz. Tientsin, Shanghai, Hankow, Chungking, Canton, and Changchun.

Peking depreciated notes will be cashed as soon as the Currency Reform Loan is concluded, when the Government will repay all indebtedness to the two banks to enable them to resume specie payment.

Restrictions will be laid on provincial and foreign banks and they will not be allowed to issue notes after a certain date. These banks may get notes from the Bank of China and Communications for issue if they so desire.

The above is the Government policy in regard to paper currency.

XI. *Currency Bureau.*—This Bureau is to be under the Premier. It will take charge of (1) investigation of currency conditions; (2) formulation of reform schemes; (3) carrying out of such schemes; and (4) administrative affairs relating to banks and currency. It will complete its task in ten years. It will have the following offices: (1) a Currency Investigation Committee, whose function will be to investigate and study conditions in China and abroad and suggest reform schemes; (2) an Assay Office; (3) Coinage Examination Committee to examine and test coins.

The Currency Bureau should compile every quarter (three months) a "work accomplished report," to be sent to the President and Parliament, and to be published in the *Government Gazette*, and translated into foreign languages to be published by the Bureau.

The Currency Loan

On April 15, 1911, an agreement was signed between Duke Tsai Tze (as President of the Ministry of Finance) on the one part, and Messrs. Willard Straight (representing Messrs. J. P. Morgan and Co., Kuhn, Loeb and Co., the First National Bank, and the National City Bank, all of New York, constituting the American Group), E. G. Hillier (for the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation), H. Cordes (for the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank), and MM. Cazenave and Henry Mazot (representing the Banque de l'Indo Chine), of the other part, authorizing the issue by the International Group of a Five per Cent Sinking Fund Gold Loan for an aggregate amount of £10,000,000. The issue price of this loan was to be 95, and of the £9,500,000 which was actually to be handed over to the Chinese Government a sum of £8,500,000 was ear-marked for the reform of the Chinese Currency system. Owing to the outbreak of the Revolution this loan was not floated, but £400,000 was advanced for Plague and Industrial expenses in Manchuria.

On October 14, 1918, the Loan Agreement was extended for six months.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF COINS IN 1917

	IMPORTS.										
	America.	Africa.	India (including Burma, etc.).	Straits Settlements.	Saigon and Tonkin.	Siam.	Hongkong and Macao.	Dutch Indies.	Japan (including Formosa).	Korea.	TOTAL.
	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.	No.
Gold Coins:—											
Yen	—	—	—	—	—	—	54,420	—	24,473,460	—	24,527,880
Sovereigns	—	—	—	—	—	—	627	—	—	—	627
United States dollars	100,000	—	—	—	—	—	20,300	—	—	—	120,300
Silver Coins (Dollars, etc.):—											
Mexican dollars	1,500	589	7,200	8,082	557,000	88,750	303,193	—	8,307	—	974,621
Hongkong "	—	—	6,000	—	25,000	13,500	79,889	—	—	—	124,389
Chopped "	—	—	—	—	—	—	101,350	—	—	—	101,350
Chinese "	—	—	—	—	348,000	—	879,610	—	—	—	1,227,610
Japanese "	—	—	3,000	—	—	29,000	651,020	—	370,056	11,964	1,065,040
French Indo-China dollars	—	—		—	27,500	26,700	469,788	—	—	—	523,988
Rupees	—	—	1,685,349	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,685,349
Silver Coins (Subsidiary):—											
50-cent pieces	—	—	16,399	—	—	—	—	—	4,000	87	20,486
20-cent "	—	—	—	—	—	—	61,888,597	—	3,658	19,380	61,911,635
10-cent "	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	238,929	—	238,929
5-cent "	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	198,500	—	198,500
Copper Coins:—											
Cash	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,245,000	580,000	395,000	—	7,220,000
Chinese 10-cash pieces	63,000	—	—	—	—	—	2,863,520	—	—	—	2,926,520
Japanese 10-cash	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	975,170	—	975,120
" 5-cash	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	102,000	—	102,000

EXPORTS OF COINS IN 1914

	America.	India (including Burma, etc.).	Straits Settlements.	Saigon and Tonkin.	Siam.	Hongkong and Macao.	Dutch Indies.	Japan (including Formosa).	Korea.	TOTAL.
Gold Coins:—										
Yen	—	10,000	—	—	—	597,500	—	30,000	—	637,500
Sovereigns	—	150	—	—	—	50	—	—	—	200
United States dollars	—	—	—	—	—	6,590	—	—	—	6,590
Silver Coins (Dollars, etc.):—										
Mexican dollars	—	5,532,600	—	500,000	—	911,236	—	—	—	6,943,836
Hongkong ,,	—	876,300	—	—	28,000	357,378	—	—	—	2,261,678
Chopped ,,	—	—	—	—	—	36,535	—	—	—	36,535
Chinese ,,	—	107,105	—	370,000	—	922,712	—	—	—	1,399,817
Japanese ,,	—	—	—	—	18,000	853,678	—	—	—	871,678
Philippine ,,	—	3,750,000	—	—	—	1,255,450	—	—	—	5,005,450
French Indo-China dollars	—	946,635	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,150,415
Straits dollars	—	—	—	—	39,500	25,000	—	—	—	39,500
Guilders	—	—	—	—	—	—	125	—	—	25,125
Rupees	—	110,841	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	110,041
Silver Coins (Subsidiary):—										
50-cent pieces	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	36,400	460	36,860
20-cent ,,	—	—	—	—	—	39,155,295	—	58,500	12,050	39,225,845
10-cent ,,	—	—	—	—	—	7,120,990	—	33,854	4,650	7,159,494
5-cent ,,	—	—	—	—	—	14,000	—	3,672	3,900	21,572
Copper Coins:—										
Cash	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Japanese 5-cent pieces	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
,, 10-cent ,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5,000	5,000
,, 20-cent ,,	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

G. EXCHANGE VARIATIONS SINCE 1890.[1]

The following table shows the extent of exchange variations since 1890:—

Official quotations. Bank's Selling Rate London T.T.	Range within year.	Difference between highest of the year and the highest of the preceding year.	Difference between the highest of the preceding year and lowest of the year.
s. d.	d.	d.	s. d.
1890. Lowest 4/2⅝ 1890. Highest 5/3⅛	Range 1s. 0½d.	..	..
1891. Lowest 4/2½ 1891. Highest 4/8½	Range 6	Down 6⅝	Down 1/0
1892. Lowest 3/8½ 1892. Highest 4/2¾	Range 6¼	Down 5¾	Down 1/0
1893. Lowest 3/1⅜ 1893. Highest 3/10⅜	Range 9	[1]Down 4⅜	Down 1/1⅜
1894. Lowest 2/7⅞ 1894. Highest 3/1¾	Range 5⅞	Down 8⅝	Down 1/2½
1895. Lowest 2/8⅜ 1895. Highest 3/0⅞	Range 4½	Down ⅞	Down 5⅜
1896. Lowest 2/10⅝ 1896. Highest 3/1⅝	Range 3	¾ up	Down 2¼
1897. Lowest 2/3¼ 1897. Highest 2/11⅛	Range 7⅞	Down 2½	Down 10⅜
1898. Lowest 2/5⅜ 1898. Highest 2/8⅞	Range 3½	Down 2¼	Down 5¾
1899. Lowest 2/7 1899. Highest 2/9⅛	Range 2⅛	¼ up	Down 1⅞
1900. Lowest 2/8 1900. Highest 2/11¼	Range 3¼	2⅛ up	Down 1⅛
1901. Lowest 2/5 1901. Highest 2/10½	Range 5½	Down ¾	Down 6¼
1902. Lowest 2/1¾ 1902. Highest 2/6½	Range 4¾	Down 4	Down 8¾
1903. Lowest 2/1⅝ 1903. Highest 2/7¼	Range 5⅝	¾ up	Down 4⅞
1904. Lowest 2/3⅞ 1904. Highest 2/8¾	Range 4⅞	1½ up	Down 3½
1905. Lowest 2/6⅛ 1905. Highest 2/11	Range 4⅞	2¼ up	Down 2½
1906. Lowest 2/9½ 1906. Highest 3/2	Range 4½	3 up	Down 1½
1907. Lowest 2/4⅝ 1907. Highest 3/0	Range 7⅜	Down 2	Down 9⅜
1908. Lowest 2/2⅜ 1908. Highest 2/7	Range 4⅝	Down 5	Down 9⅝
1909. Lowest 2/3½ 1909. Highest 2/5¼	Range 1¾	Down 1¾	Down 3½
1910. Lowest 2/3½ 1910. Highest 2/6⅜	Range 3⅛	1⅜ up	Down 1¾
1911. Lowest 2/4$\frac{5}{16}$ 1911. Highest 2/5⅞	Range 1$\frac{9}{16}$	Down ¾	Down 2$\frac{5}{16}$
1912. Lowest 2/5$\frac{13}{16}$ 1912. Highest 2/10$\frac{7}{16}$	Range 4⅝	4$\frac{9}{16}$ up	Down $\frac{1}{16}$
1913. Lowest 2/6¾ 1913. Highest 2/10$\frac{11}{16}$	Range 3$\frac{15}{16}$	$\frac{4}{16}$ up	Down 3$\frac{11}{16}$
1914. Lowest 2/1⅞ 1914. Highest 2/7⅝	Range 5¾	Down 3$\frac{1}{16}$	Down 8$\frac{13}{16}$
1915. Lowest 2/2¾ 1915. Highest 2/7¾	Range 5	⅛ up	Down 4⅞

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[1] *Note.*—Sherman Act repealed.

Official quotations. Bank's Selling Rate London T.T.	Range within year.	Difference between highest of the year and the highest of the preceding year.	Difference between the highest of the preceding year and lowest of the year
s. d.	*d.*	*d.*	*s. d.*
1916. Lowest 2/6⅝ . . 1916. Highest 3/6½ . .	Range 11⅞	10¾ up.	Down 1⅛
1917. Lowest 3/3½ . . 1917. Highest 4/10½ . .	Range 1s. 7d.	1s. 4d. up.	Down 3
1918. Lowest 4/2½ . . 1918. Highest 5/7 . .	Range 1s. 4½d.	8½d. up.	Down 8d.

Average T. T. rate: 1909, 2/3⅞; 1910, 2/4 15/16; 1911, 2/4 15/16; 1912, 2/8⅝; 1913, 2/8½; 1914, 2/5⅜; 1915, 2/3⅞; 1916, 2/11 11/16.

D. LOAN AGREEMENTS

I.—REORGANIZATION LOAN AGREEMENT

(*Floated May* 21, 1913)

THIS AGREEMENT, made at Peking on the twenty-sixth day of April, 1913, between THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA (hereinafter called "THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT"), acting through its Premier, its Minister of Foreign Affairs, and its Minister of Finance, of the one part,

AND
THE HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION,
THE DEUTSCH-ASIATISCHE BANK,
THE BANQUE DE L'INDO-CHINE,
THE RUSSO-ASIATIC BANK, and
THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK, Limited
(hereinafter collectively called "THE BANKS"), of the other part,

WITNESSETH:—

WHEREAS the Chinese Government desires to borrow the sum of Twenty-five Million Pounds Sterling (£25,000,000) equal to 511,250,000 Marks, 631,250,000 Francs, 236,750,000 Roubles, 244,900,000 Yen, for general reorganization and administrative purposes (hereinafter to be specified) and proposes to evidence the above loan by the issue of its gold bonds for the principal amount above named, and

WHEREAS the Banks are prepared to issue to the public on behalf of the Chinese Government the bonds of the above-named loan:

THEREFORE IT IS AGREED AS FOLLOWS:—

ARTICLE I.—The Chinese Government hereby authorizes the Banks to issue either in one amount or in series, at their option, five per cent (5%) gold bonds, to an aggregate amount of £25,000,000 equal to 511,250,000 Marks, 631,250,000 Francs, 236,750,000 Roubles, 244,900,000 Yen.

The Banks have the option to pay the whole or any portion of the proceeds of the loan to the Chinese Government in Pounds Sterling or the equivalent at the above parities in the currencies of the various countries in which the subscriptions have been made. The coupons attached to the preliminary certificates and to the definitive bonds shall be payable in the various countries at the above parities. The definitive bonds shall be subject to the same conditions when drawn, redeemed, or paid.

The loan shall be of the date of the first issue of bonds and shall be entitled "THE CHINESE GOVERNMENT FIVE PER CENT REORGANIZATION GOLD LOAN of 1913."

ARTICLE II.—Subject to the provision in Article XIII hereinafter for the payment of the first coupon, the net proceeds of the loan shall be used solely for the following purposes:—

(*a*) Payment of liabilities due by the Chinese Government as detailed in Annex A to this Agreement.
(*b*) Redemption in full of outstanding provincial loans as detailed in Annex B to this Agreement.
(*c*) Provision for payment at due date of liabilities of the Chinese Government shortly maturing as shown in Annex C to this Agreement, including provision for foreign claims for damage and losses arising out of the Revolution.
(*d*) Disbandment of troops as detailed in Annex D to this Agreement.
(*e*) Current expenses of administration as estimated in Annex E to this Agreement.
(*f*) Reorganization of the Salt Administration as set forth in Annex F to this Agreement.
(*g*) Such other administrative purposes as may be mutually agreed upon between the Chinese Government and the Banks.

The aforesaid Annexes form part of this present Agreement.

ARTICLE III.—This entire loan, and all advances which may be made in connection therewith, are hereby constituted a direct liability and obligation of the Chinese Government, which hereby pledges its good faith and credit for the punctual payment of the principal and interest of the loan and/or advances and for the performance of all the undertakings on its part herein assumed.

ARTICLE IV.—This entire loan, together with any advances which may be made in connection therewith, is hereby secured in respect to both principal and interest by a charge upon the entire revenues of the Salt Administration of China, subject to previous loans and obligations already charged on the security thereof and not yet redeemed, as detailed in the statement attached to this Agreement, and it shall have priority both as regards principal and interest over all future loans, charges and mortgages charged upon the above-mentioned revenues so long as this loan or any part thereof shall be unredeemed. No loan, charge or mortgage shall be raised or created which shall take precedence of or be on an equality with this loan, or which shall in any manner lessen or impair its security over the said revenues of the Salt Administration of China, so far as required for the annual service of this loan, and any future loan, charge or mortgage charged on the said revenues of the Salt Administration shall be made subject to this loan, and it shall be so expressed in every agreement for any such future loan, charge or mortgage.

If at a future time the annual collection of the Maritime Customs revenues should exceed the amount necessary to provide for all existing obligations charged thereon or which may have become chargeable thereon under existing agreements by reason of the abolition of likin consequent upon tariff revision, it is understood and agreed that such surplus shall be applied in the first instance to the security and service of this loan, the surplus of the salt revenues being thereby pro tanto increased and made available for the general purposes of the Chinese Government.

Article V.—The Chinese Government engages to take immediate steps for the reorganization with the assistance of foreigners of the system of collection of the salt revenues of China assigned as security for this loan, in the manner which has been determined upon by the Ministry of Finance and which is as follows :—

The Chinese Government will establish a Central Salt Administration (Yen Wu Shu) at Peking, under the control of the Minister of Finance. This Central Salt Administration will comprise a Chief Inspectorate of Salt Revenues (Chi Ho Tsung So) under a Chinese Chief Inspector (Tsung Pan), and a foreign Associate Chief Inspector (Hui Pan), who will constitute the chief authority for the superintendence of the issue of licences and the compilation of reports and returns of revenues. In each salt-producing district there will be a branch office of the Chief Inspectorate (Chi Ho Fen So), under one Chinese and one foreign District Inspector (So Chang) who shall be jointly responsible for the collection and deposit of the salt revenues. The engagement and dismissal of these Chinese and foreign District Inspectors, and of the necessary Chinese and foreign staff at the Chief and Branch Inspectorates, will be decided jointly by the Chinese and foreign Chief Inspectors, with the approval of the Minister of Finance. It will be the duty of the District Inspectors jointly to superintend the issue of licences and to collect all fees and salt dues ; and to report all receipts and disbursements in full detail to the local Salt Commissioner (Yen Yün Ssu) and to the Chief Inspectorate in Peking, which will publish periodical reports of the same after submission to the Minister of Finance.

Release of salt against payment of dues in any District will be made only under joint signature of the Chinese and foreign District Inspectors, the revenues so collected to be lodged by them in a "Chinese Government Salt Revenue Account" with the Banks or with depositories approved by the Banks, and reported to the Chief Inspectorate for comparison with their returns. This Salt Revenue Account shall be drawn upon only under the joint signatures of the Chief Inspectors, whose duty it will be to protect the priority of the several obligations secured upon the salt revenues.

So long as the interest and principal of this loan are regularly paid there shall be no interference with the Salt Administration as herein provided, but if interest and/or principal be in default at due date, then after a reasonable period of grace the said organization shall forthwith be incorporated with the Maritime Customs and the revenues above pledged shall be administered for the account and in the interest of the bondholders.

Article VI.—Pending the reorganization of the Salt Administration and commencing with the first month from the date of this loan, the Provinces of Chihli Shantung, Honan and Kiangsu shall pay monthly into the Banks the funds necessary to meet the service of this loan in accordance with the amounts stated in the Schedule to be attached to this Agreement and fourteen days before the due date of each such amount. The payment of these amounts by the Provinces named is hereby secured by a first charge upon Central Government taxes of the respective provinces to be assigned, and the Chinese Government engages to supply the Banks with evidence that the obligations under this Agreement of the Provinces named are officially recognized by the proper authorities of the said Provinces.

So soon as the revenue collection of the Salt Administration over a period of one year shall be sufficient to cover the service of all loans and obligations now secured thereon, including that of this present loan, together with a margin sufficient to cover a further half-yearly interest coupon of the latter, the said monthly contributions from the Provinces shall be suspended, and the service of this loan shall then be paid from the revenues of the Salt Administration. So soon as the revenues of the Salt Administration shall have been maintained for three successive years at the figure above determined, the aforesaid provincial liability shall be finally released.

Article VII.—The Banks are hereby authorized to issue to subscribers to the loan gold bonds for the total amount of the loan in such denominations and for such amounts as shall be determined by the Banks. The form and language of the bonds shall be settled by the Banks in consultation with the Ministry of Finance or with the Chinese Ministers in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg and Tokio.

The bonds shall be printed and/or engraved by the Banks at the expense of the Chinese Government and shall bear the facsimile of the signature of the Minister of Finance, in order to dispense with the necessity of his signing them all in person, and of the seal of the Chinese Government. The Chinese Minister in London and/or Berlin and/or Paris and/or St. Petersburg and/or Tokio at the option of the Banks shall previous to the issue of the bonds authenticate them with a facsimile of his signature and of his seal as a proof that the issue and sale of the bonds are duly authorized by and binding upon the Chinese Government. Representatives of the Banks in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg or Yokohama, as the case may be, may countersign the bonds as agents for the issue of the loan.

Article VIII.—The rate of interest for the loan shall be five per cent (5%) per annum on the nominal principal and shall be paid by the Chinese Government to the bondholders half-yearly through the Banks or their designated agents, upon presentation of the proper coupons. Coupons shall be payable in Pounds Sterling or the equivalent in Marks, Francs, Roubles and Yen as provided in Article I. The said interest shall be calculated from the date on which the loan is issued to the public.

ARTICLE IX.—The term of the loan shall be forty-seven (47) years. Repayments of principal shall commence with the 11th year, and shall be made by yearly sinking fund of ·98397945% equal to £245,994 : 17 : 3 equivalent to 5,030,594.94 Marks, 6,211,370.28 Francs, 2,329,571.35 Roubles, 2,409,765.67 Yen, which shall be paid by the Chinese Government to the Banks in monthly instalments in accordance with the amounts stated in the Schedule to be attached to this Agreement, and fourteen days before the due date of each such amount.

If at any time after the lapse of seventeen years from the date of the loan the Chinese Government should desire to redeem the whole outstanding amount of the loan or any part of it not yet due for repayment in accordance with the Schedule to be attached hereto it may do so up to the end of the thirty-second year by a payment of a premium of two and one-half per cent (2½%) on the face value of the bonds, that is to say by the payment of £102 : 10/- for each £100 Bond, and after the end of the thirty-second year it may make such extra redemption without premium, but in each and every case of such extra redemption the Chinese Government shall give six months' previous notice in writing to the Banks and such extra redemption shall be effected by additional drawings of bonds to take place on the date of an ordinary drawing as provided for in the prospectus of the loan.

When the loan has been fully repaid this Agreement will immediately become null and void.

ARTICLE X.—Payments by the Chinese Government for interest and amortization shall be made monthly in accordance with the amounts stated in the Schedule to be attached to this Agreement, and fourteen days before the due date of each such amount in equal shares to the Banks by the Ministry of Finance, which shall hand to the Banks in Shanghai funds in Shanghai sycee and/or coin of the national currency, so soon as the said currency shall have been effectively established, sufficient to meet each such payment in gold in Europe and/or in Japan, exchange for which shall be settled with the Banks on the same day. These payments may however be made in gold in Europe, and/or in Japan, fourteen days before their due date, if the Chinese Government should happen to have gold funds bona fide at its disposal in Europe and/or in Japan, not remitted from China for the purpose, and should desire so to use them. Interest upon the said monthly instalments until they are required for the service of the loan to the bondholders shall be allowed by the Banks to the Chinese Government at the rate of 2% per annum.

In reimbursement of expenses connected with the payment of interest and with the repayment of principal of the loan the Banks are hereby granted by the Chinese Government a commission of one-fourth per cent (¼%) on the annual loan service, the said commission to be paid half-yearly to the Banks as provided in the Schedule to be attached to this Agreement.

ARTICLE XI.—All details necessary for the prospectus of the loan, and in connection with the payment of interest and the repayment of principal of the loan and with the withdrawing of bonds for redemption, not herein explicitly provided for, shall be left for arrangement by the Banks in consultation with the Chinese Minister in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg and/or Tokio.

The Banks are hereby authorized to issue the prospectus of the loan as soon as possible after the signing of this Agreement, and the Chinese Government will instruct the Chinese Ministers in the various capitals named above to co-operate with the Banks in any matters requiring conjoint action and to sign when requested the prospectus of the loan.

ARTICLE XII.—All bonds, coupons and payments made and received in connection with the service of this loan shall be exempt from all Chinese taxes and imposts during the currency of this loan.

ARTICLE XIII.—The price of this present loan or of any series thereof to the Chinese Government shall be the price of its issue to the public on the London market less a deduction by the Banks of six per cent (6%) of the nominal value of the bonds, the issue price in London to be not less than Ninety per cent (90%), securing to China a net price of not less than Eighty-four per cent (84%) for the entire loan. The Banks shall be responsible for all expenses connected with the issue of the loan except the printing and/or engraving of the bonds.

It shall be left to the Banks to determine the most favourable moment for issue, and the Minister of Finance shall be notified in advance in order that the necessary instructions may be given to the Chinese Ministers abroad.

The Banks shall retain on deposit in Europe and/or Japan from the first proceeds of the loan a sufficient amount to meet the first half-year's interest and the Bank's commission of ¼% thereon, and the Chinese Government hereby authorizes the Banks to pay the said first half-year's interest and commission from the funds so retained. At the same time the funds to be paid by the Provinces into the Banks in China for service of the loan as provided in Article VI of this Agreement shall accumulate during the six months covered by the first half-year's interest so retained, and shall be held as a reserve fund to provide against any possible interruption of such payments by the Provinces, until the suspension of the latter takes place under the provision of the said Article.

After deduction from the proceeds of the loan of an amount sufficient for the payment of the first coupon and for the repayment with accrued interest of any advances made by the Banks on account of this loan, and after provision has been made for items *a*, *b*, and *c* in terms of Article II of this Agreement, the balance of the net proceeds of the loan shall be placed to the credit of a "Chinese Government Reorganization Loan Account" with the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, the Banque de l'Indo-Chine, the Russo-Asiatic Bank and the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg or Yokohama, in instalments and on dates conforming to the conditions allowed by the prospectus to the subscribers to the loan.

Transfers of loan funds to China from the Banks in Europe and Japan shall be made through the Banks in China as nearly as possible in equal amounts from each of the Banks, the rates of exchange for each transfer from Europe or Japan being settled simultaneously with the transferring Banks on the same day. In the event of equal transfers being found to be impracticable a mutually satisfactory procedure for making the transfers above referred to shall be arranged between the Minister of Finance and/or the Banks.

Interest at the rate of three (3) per cent per annum shall be granted on the balance of loan funds held in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg or Yokohama: interest on the credit portion of the loan funds kept in China by the transferring Banks will be allowed at the Banks' rate for current accounts to be arranged.

Withdrawals of that portion of the loan proceeds held in the aforesaid Chinese Government Reorganization Loan Account in Europe or Japan shall be at the order of the Ministry of Finance subject to the provisions of Article XIV hereinafter. Transfers of loan funds to China shall be made in amounts to be arranged from time to time with the Banks but shall not exceed £500,000 in any one week, and funds so transferred shall be held by the transferring Banks in China until required for the purposes for which the loan is made, and withdrawn as hereinafter provided in Article XIV.

ARTICLE XIV.—The Chinese Government engages at once to put into effective operation an Account and Audit Department, under the Provisional Regulations Promulgated by a Presidential Order dated the 15th of November, 1912, and published in the *Official Gazette* of November 16th, 1912, copy and translation of which are hereto attached in Annex H of this Agreement, subject to the understanding that any modifications which may be found necessary shall not impair their effect in regard to this loan.

The Chinese and foreign Directors of the Bureau of National Loans shall witness their approval of all requisitions for loan funds by their joint signatures thereon. Withdrawals of loan funds from the Banks shall be for amounts corresponding to the actual requirements of disbursements.

Cheques and/or orders upon the Banks for the withdrawal of loan funds shall be signed by a duly authorized representative of the Minister of Finance and shall be sent, together with the supporting requisitions duly signed as above, and the relative "orders to pay" (Fa k'uan ming-ling), to a representative of the Banks to be designated. The said representative of the Banks, after satisfying himself that the expenditure is in accordance with Article II of this Agreement and the Annexes therein referred to, shall forthwith countersign the cheque and return it to the Ministry of Finance for presentation to and payment by the Banks.

Should the said representative of the Banks be in doubt in respect to disbursements of loan funds which have been made, he shall be entitled to make inquiries of the foreign Director of the Bureau of National Loans and to call upon him for the production of receipts and vouchers for inspection.

ARTICLE XV.—In the event of any bond or bonds issued from this loan being lost, stolen or destroyed, the Bank or Banks concerned may notify the Ministry of Finance and the Chinese Ministers in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg or Tokio, as the case may be, who shall authorize the Bank or Banks concerned to insert an advertisement in the public newspapers stating that payment of such bond or bonds has been stopped; and to take such other steps as may appear advisable or necessary according to the laws or customs of the country concerned. Should any bond or bonds be destroyed, or should such lost or stolen bond or bonds not be recovered after a lapse of time to be fixed by the Banks, the Chinese Ministers in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg or Tokio, as the case may be, shall execute a duplicate bond or duplicate bonds for a like amount and deliver the same to the Bank or Banks representing the owner or owners of such lost, stolen or destroyed bond or bonds, which Bank or Banks shall pay all expenses in connection with such delivery and execution of such duplicate bond or bonds for the account of the owner or owners of such bond or bonds.

ARTICLE XVI.—If before the publication of the prospectus for the issue of this loan any political or financial crisis should occur affecting the money markets or the prices of Chinese Government securities in such manner or to such degree as in the opinion of the Banks will render impossible the successful flotation and issue of this loan on the terms herein named, the Banks shall be granted a period of six months from the date on which this Agreement shall be signed within which to issue the loan to the public. If on the expiration of this period the markets are still unfavourable, then the Banks shall be entitled to ask the Chinese Government for extension of time. If the Chinese Government should refuse to grant the extension of time requested, this contract shall become null and void, subject always to the repayment to the Banks with accrued interest of any advances which may have been made by them on account of this loan. If this loan shall be issued in series under Article I hereof, the provisions of this clause shall, *mutatis mutandis*, apply to the issue of each series of the loan.

ARTICLE XVII.—In the event of the Chinese Government desiring to issue further loans secured upon the revenue of the Salt Administration or to issue supplementary loans for purposes of the nature of those specified in Article II of this Agreement, the Chinese Government will give to the Banks the option of undertaking such loans on a commission basis of six per cent (6%) of the nominal value of the bonds as provided in Article XIII of this Agreement.

The Chinese Government further undertakes that for a period of six months after the complete issue of this present loan and payment of the last instalment thereof in terms of the prospectus it will not proceed to the issue of any other Government loan or loans having a Government guarantee concluded later than April 10th, 1913, without the previous agreement of the Banks.

ARTICLE XVIII.—The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, the Banque de l'Indo-Chine, the Russo-Asiatic Bank and the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, shall take the loan in equal shares and without responsibility for each other.

ARTICLE XIX.—The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, the Banque de l'Indo-Chine, the Russo-Asiatic Bank and the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, may, subject to all their obligations under this Agreement, transfer or delegate all or any of their rights, powers and discretions thereunder to any British, German, French, Russian or Japanese Company, Directors or Agents with power of further transfer and sub-delegation; such transfer, sub-transfer, delegation or sub-delegation to be subject, however, to the approval of the Chinese Government.

ARTICLE XX.—This Agreement is signed on behalf of the Chinese Government by the Premier, the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Minister of Finance under authority of a Presidential Order dated the twenty-second day of April, 1913, which has been officially communicated to the Ministers in Peking of Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia and Japan by the Waichiaopu.

ARTICLE XXI.—Eight sets of this Agreement are executed in English and Chinese, three sets to be retained by the Chinese Government and five sets by the Banks. In the event of any doubt arising regarding the interpretation of this Agreement the English text shall rule.

Signed at Peking this twenty-sixth day of April, 1913.

Signed by: CHAO PING-CHÜN, *Premier.*

LU CHENG-HSIANG, *Minister of Foreign Affairs.*

CHOU HSÜEH-HSI, *Minister of Finance.*

For the Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation,

E. G. HILLIER,
Agent.

For the Deutsch-Asiatische Bank,

H. CORDES.

Banque de l'Indo-Chine,

HENRY MAZOT. R. SAINT PIERRE.

Russo-Asiatic-Bank,

L. DE HOYER.

For the Yokohama Specie Bank,

M. ODAGIRI.

A.—AGREEMENT FOR ADVANCES

THIS AGREEMENT for advances on account of the "Chinese Government Five Per Cent Reorganization Gold Loan" of £25,000,000 is made between

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA (hereinafter called "The Chinese Government"), acting through its Premier, its Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Minister of Finance, of the one part,

AND

THE HONGKONG AND SHANGHAI BANKING CORPORATION,
THE DEUTSCH-ASIATISCHE BANK,
THE BANQUE DE L'INDO-CHINE,
THE RUSSO-ASIATIC BANK, and
THE YOKOHAMA SPECIE BANK, Limited
(hereinafter collectively called "THE BANKS"), of the other part.

WHEREAS the above contracting parties have this day entered into an Agreement for a "CHINESE GOVERNMENT FIVE PER CENT REORGANIZATION GOLD LOAN" of £25,000,000 and it has been agreed that the said loan shall be issued to the public as soon as possible at a price in London of not less than Ninety per cent of the nominal value of the bonds, and

WHEREAS the Chinese Government is in urgent need of funds pending the issue of the said loan to the public,

IT IS HEREBY AGREED AS FOLLOWS:—

ARTICLE I.—The Banks hereby agree to advance immediately upon the signature of this Agreement the equivalent of £2,000,000 Sterling as follows: £400,000, Marks 8,180,000, Francs 10,100,000, Roubles 3,788,000, Yen 3,918,400, to be held to the order of the Minister of Finance in London, Berlin, Paris, St. Petersburg and Yokohama respectively. The Chinese Government undertakes, if and when requested by the Banks, to evidence the said advances by the issue of Treasury Bills in the respective Currencies to be handed to the Banks.

ARTICLE II.—Interest on the said advances of the aggregate equivalent of £2,000,000 shall be at the rate of Seven per cent (7%) per annum, calculated from the date of this Agreement, and payable half-yearly, and the principal with accrued interest shall be repaid from the first proceeds of the said "Chinese Government Five Per Cent Reorganization Gold Loan" of £25,000,000 when issued, or in any case shall be repaid to the Banks by the Chinese Government within Twelve months from the date of this Agreement.

ARTICLE III.—These present advances for the aggregate equivalent of £2,000,000, constitute a direct liability and obligation of the Chinese Government and are secured in respect to both principal and interest by the charge upon the entire revenues of the Salt Administration of China, in terms of Articles III and IV of the said Reorganization Loan Agreement.

ARTICLE IV.—The said advances shall be used solely for the purposes specified in, and shall be treated as for account of, the Annexes D and E to the said Reorganization Loan Agreement; their disbursement shall be carried out in accordance with the provisions of Article XIV of that Agreement.

Arrangements will be made between the Minister of Finance and the Banks for the transfer of the said advances to China and the payment of the silver equivalent at the places where required.

ARTICLE V.—The terms of this Agreement shall be officially communicated by the Waichiaopu to the Ministers of Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia and Japan in Peking.

ARTICLE VI.—Eight sets of this Agreement are executed in English and Chinese, three sets to be retained by the Chinese Government and five sets by the Banks. In the event of any doubt regarding the interpretation of this Agreement the English text shall rule.

Signed at Peking by the Contracting Parties this twenty-sixth day of April, 1913.

(*Signatures as above.*)

B.—ANNEXES TO LOAN AGREEMENT

1. CHINESE GOVERNMENT 5% REORGANIZATION GOLD LOAN OF 1913

Annex A.—Liabilities due by the Chinese Government.

Arrears of Boxer Indemnity to 31st December 1912, estimated at about . . .		£2,000,000	0	0
Repayment to Group Banks, with accrued interest, of sundry advances already due, as per detailed statement to be filed with Ministry of Finance; estimated at about		£150,000	0	0
1913.				
February 28.	Chinese Government Treasury Bills, under Letter of Agreement dated 29th February 1912. Shanghai Taels 2,000,000 @ 2/8½ and 92½ .	£292,792	15	6
	Together with interest @ 7½% per annum from 28th February 1913 to date of payment (say) . . .	£3,200	0	0
March 9.	Chinese Government Treasury Bills, under Letter of Agreement dated 9th March 1912. Shanghai Taels 1,100,000 @ 2/8 and 92½ . .	£158,558	11	6
	Together with interest @ 7½% per annum from 9th March 1913 to date of payment (say) . . .	£1,500	0	0
" 14.	Belgian Loan of 14th March 1912 .	£1,000,000	0	0
	Together with interest thereon from 14th March to date of payment (say	£13,000	0	0

April	6.	Belgian Loan of 6th April 1912 .		£250,000 0 0
		Together with interest thereon from 6th April to date of payment (say).		£1,600 0 0
"	14.	Advance by the American, British, German and French Groups, against the Currency Reform Loan, under agreement dated 15th April 1911. .	£400,000 0 0	
		To interest @ 6% on above advance from 30th May 1911 to 15th October 1912. .	£33,139 14 9	
			£433,139 14 9	
		To interest on above sum from 15th October 1912 to 14th April 1913 @ 6% .	£12,887 7 10	£446,027 2 7
		Together with interest @ 6% from 14th April to date of payment (say)		£1,100 0 0
				£4,317,778 9 7

Annex B.—Provincial Loans.

Principal and interest in default and/or principal outstanding, plus accrued interest, as per detailed statements to be filed with the Ministry of Finance, payable to:—

(1.) The nine foreign banks in Shanghai . .		Taels	3,500,000.00
(2.) The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, The Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, The Banque de l'Indo-Chine and The International Banking Corporation for the American Group . . .	About	Taels	2,217,804.00
(3.) The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, The Deutsch-Asiatische Bank and The Banque de l'Indo-Chine .	About	Taels	5,882,620.00
(4.) The Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation . . .	"	"	1,630,052.00
(5.) The Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited	"	"	5,106,940.00
(6.) The Banque de l'Indo-Chine . .	"	"	122,700.00
(7.) The Deutsch-Asiatische Bank . .	"	"	661,550.00
(8.) The Russo-Asiatic Bank . .	"	"	337,198.00
Allowance for estimated interest accrued	"	"	680.000.00
	"	"	20,138,864.00

Equal to (say) £2,870,000.

Annex C.—Statement of Liabilities of the Chinese Government shortly maturing.

Due Date. 1913.			
May	17.	To Chinese Government Treasury Bills under Letter of Agreement dated 17th May 1912. Shanghai Taels 3,000,000, @ 2/9$\frac{11}{16}$ and 92$\frac{1}{2}$	£455,236 9 9
June	12.	Chinese Government Treasury Bills, under Letter of Agreement dated 12th June 1912, Shanghai Taels 3,000,000 @ 2/9$\frac{1}{4}$ and 92$\frac{1}{2}$.	£449,324 6 6
,,	18.	Chinese Government Treasury Bills, under Letter of Agreement dated 18th June 1912. Shanghai Taels 3,000,000 @ 2/9$\frac{1}{2}$ and 92$\frac{1}{2}$.	£452,702 14 0
		Allowance for foreign claims arising out of the Revolution	£2,000,000 0 0
			£3,357,263 10 3
May	10.	Loan to the Chinese Minister at Tokio, Japan, for Yen 350,000 @ 7% per annum dated 10th November 1911 by the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, under the authorization of the Premier and the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Ta Ching Government and was confirmed by Tsaichengpu and Waiwupu	G. Yen 290,935.00
		Together with interest @ 7% per annum from 25th November 1912 to the date of payment, say . .	G. Yen 10,000.00
September	15.	Loan to the Ministry of Communications for G. Yen 2,000,000 @ 7% p.a. dated 15th September 1911 by the Yokohama Specie Bank, Limited, and renewed on 15th March 1913 under the condition to be payable out of the first proceeds of any foreign loan . .	G. Yen 2,000,000.00
		Plus interest on the above @ 7% p.a. from 15th March 1913 to the date of payment, say . .	G. Yen 24,000.00
			G. Yen 2,324,935.00

Equal to, say £3,592,263.10.3

Annex D.—Disbandment of Troops.

	Taels.	
Shantung	800,000	
Shansi	500,000	
Honan	600,000	
Anhui	1,000,000	
Hupeh	4,000,000	
Kiangsu	1.500,000	
Fukien	1,400,000	
Kuangsi	1,200,000	
Szechuan	2,000,000	
Yunnan	1,000,000	
Kueichow	600,000	
Shensi	1,400,000	
Mukden	600,000	
Kirin	400,000	
Kansu	1,000,000	
Sinkiang	600,000	
Jehol	600,000	
Kuangtung	1,050,000	
Chekiang	560,000	
Kiangsi	60,000	Taels 20,870,000.00

The total of the above is Taels 20,870,000, which is equal to about £3,000,000.

Details of troops to be disbanded are contained in confidential statement handed to the Banks.

Annex E.—Current Expenses of Administration. Estimated amount from April to September, 1913.

The Board of Foreign Affairs:—

1. The expenses of the Board proper	$ 381,532.00	
2. Expenses for the Legations abroad	$ 1,224,756.00	
3. Expenses for the schools belonging to the Board	$ 169,924.00	
Total		$ 1,776,212.00

The Board of Home Affairs:—

1. Expenses for the Board proper	$ 274,200.00	
2. Expenses for constables of inside and outside of Peking City	$ 1,223,836.00	
3. Expenses for hospitals, bureaux and schools belonging to the Board	$ 80,011.00	
4. Expenses for the Yamen of Infantry General	$ 614,573.00	
Total		$ 2,192,620.00

The Board of Finance:—

1. Expenses for the Board proper	$ 250,000.00	
2. Expenses for the Bureaux and Factories belonging to the Board	$ 196,770.00	
3. Expenses for the President's Yamen	$ 300,000.00	
4. Expenses for the Cabinet, including the Bureau of Legislation, of Civil Appointments, of Printing, of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs, of Audit and the Provisional Bureau of Merits	$ 475,814.00	
5. Expenses for the Parliament	$ 1,000,000.00	
6. Expenses for the Imperial Pensions	$ 2,777,777.00	
7. Expenses for the Tax Department and Schools belonging to the Board	$ 103,456.00	
8. Expenses for various taxation Yamen	$ 221,800.00	
9. Allowances to various Bannermen and their Rice Commutation	$ 6,666,666.00	
10. Allowances to the Bannermen of the Provinces of Jehol, Tsarhar, Miyuan, etc.	$ 625,000.00	
11. Allowance to those in charge of Ching Tombs	$ 404,525.00	
	Total	$ 13,021,808.00

Board of Army:—

1. Expenses of the Board proper	$ 540,000.00	
2. Salaries and allowances to the various Bureaux of the various Divisions under the Board	$ 8,400,000.00	
3. General Staff and their expenses for their Camps and Bureaux	$ 1,761,675.00	
4. Allowances to Ching Guards (or to Imperial Guards)	$ 1,243,196.00	
5. Allowances to Kung Guards (now the President's Guards)	$ 1,532,844.00	
6. Allowance to Wu Guards-Left	$ 1,286,352.00	
7. " " " " -Van	$ 974,274.00	
8. Allowance and expenses for Military Executive Department in Peking	$ 87,980.00	
	Total	$ 15,826,321.00
	Forward	$ 32,816,961.00

Board of Navy.

1. Expenses for the Board proper	$ 182,348.00	
2. Expenses for the various Commanders-in-Chief, Men-of-War and Schools belonging to the Board	$ 1,200,000.00	
	Total	$ 1,382,348.00

The Board of Law.

1. Expenses for the Board proper	$ 346,640.00		
2. Expenses for Courts and Gaols	$ 279,394.00		
		Total	$ 626,034.00

The Board of Education.

1. Expenses for the Board proper	$ 537,984.00		
2. Expenses for Schools, Bureaux and Offices belonging to the Board	$ 799,620.00		
		Total	$ 1,337,604.00

The Board of Agriculture and Forestry.

1. The expenses for the Board proper	$ 309,242.00		
2. Expenses for Grounds and Bureaux belonging to the Board	$ 42,156.00		
		Total	$ 351,398.00

The Board of Communications.

1. Expenses of the Board proper	$ 302,806.00		
2. Expenses for the training purposes within its sphere	$ 236,691.00		
		Total	$ 539,497.00

Note.—Expenses for Railways, Navigation, Post and Telegraph undertakings by the Board will be included under the item of extraordinary estimates, and it may be assumed that their expenditures and incomes will balance. The newly established railway lines are not included here.

The Board of Works and Commerce.

1. Expenses of the Board proper	$ 208,656.00		
2. Expenses for the various Bureaux belonging to the Board	$ 60,000.00		
		Total	$ 268,656.00
		Total	$ 37,322,498.00

Extraordinary Expenses.

1. Bureau of Printing and Engraving. Engineering works, machinery and plant	$ 750,000.00
2. Paper Mill. Engineering works and machinery and plant	$ 1,400,000.00
3. The Mint. (Head) Engineering work, machinery and plant	$ 500,000.00
4. The University. Building expenses	$ 500,000.00
5. Tsung Tombs. Engineering Works	$ 4,611,537.00

6. The Parliament. Engineering Works . .	$	1,500,000.00
7. Payments of Debts of various Boards in the year 1912. Administrative Expenses . . .	$	3,845,000.00
8. Imperial Pensions. Due and unpaid in the year 1912	$	3,017,333.00
9. Rice Commutation of 8 Banners . . .	$	1,807,750.00
Total	$	17,931,620.00
Total of Ordinary Expenditure	$	37,322,498.00
Total of Extraordinary Expenditure	$	17,931,620.00
	$	55,254,118.00

Equal to, say, £5,500,000

The representative designated by the Banks will be furnished with monthly detailed estimates of expenditures under above headings.

Annex F.—Reorganization of the Salt Administration.

General Estimate of Expenses for the reorganization of Salt Administration.

(1) Capital for purchase and transportation of salt .	$	7,000,000.00
(2) Expenses for the establishment of Salt-making Factories with machines	$	3,000,000.00
(3) Reorganization of Salt lands . . .	$	5,000,000.00
(4) Capital for Advances to Salt Merchants under a banking scheme to be approved by the Banks .	$	5,000,000.00
	$	20,000,000.00

Equivalent to, say, £2,000,000

Note.—In the event of the total net proceeds of the loan being insufficient to cover all the estimated expenditure under Annexes A to F any deficiency shall be met by a corresponding reduction in the amount of item No. 4 of Annex F.

II.—AUSTRIAN LOANS (1913)

Summaries of Contracts

Agreement made between the Ministry of Navy in Peking, represented by the Hon. Liu Kuan-shun, Minister of the Navy (hereinafter referred to as the said Board) of the one part, and Messrs. Arnhold, Karberg and Co. of Peking (hereinafter referred to as the said firm) of the other, as follows :—

1. In consideration of the separate loan agreement made between the Chinese Government and Messrs. Arnhold, Karberg and Co. for the amount of two million pounds sterling the said Board hereby agrees to order from the said firm :

Twelve torpedo-boat destroyers hereinafter more particularly specified, and the said firm agrees to accept and carry out this order on the terms and conditions hereinafter expressed.

2. The said twelve torpedo-boat destroyers shall be all of the same type and construction as the boat already supplied by the Stabilimento Technico Trieste to the said Board, that is to say the machinery shall be of modern type, the capacity is to be 400 tons, speed 30 knots, length 67 metres, breadth — metres, h.p. 6000, and all further particulars, arrangements, and special contract conditions shall be exactly the same as agreed upon for the boat already supplied by the Stabilimento works.

3. The armament shall consist of one 12pdr. Skoda Q.F. gun, with 200 rounds of ammunition; seven 3pdr. Skoda Q.F. gun, with 300 rounds of ammunition for each gun; two torpedo deck tubes of 18 inches with four torpedoes, type Blackhead (Schwarzkopff, Berlin).

4. The price for each boat shall be £66,150 net, delivery at the port of Trieste.

5. The boats shall be delivered as follows:—
During 1914—Two boats.
During 1915—Five boats.
During 1916—Five boats.
Shipbuilders not to be responsible for delays owing to strikes or other *force majeure*.

6. Payments to be made as follows:—

£16,500 for each boat to be paid after the definite settlement of the contract.

£16,500 for each boat to be paid one week after the launching of the respective boat or boats.

£16,500 for each boat to be paid one week after successful trial of the respective boat or boats.

£16,500 for each boat to be paid when handing over at Trieste the respective boat or boats.

7. If so desired by the Board, the firm is prepared to deliver the said destroyers at a Chinese port, but all risk and expenses connected therewith will be borne by the said Board.

8. The said Board shall be at liberty to send deputies to the shipbuilding yard of the said firm to superintend the construction of the destroyers and to take delivery of same when completed.

9. Should the Chinese Government during the life of this agreement desire an alteration in the design or type of the vessels contracted for by which a difference in price (to be a diminution of or an addition to the contract price) might occur, it is mutually agreed that the two contracting parties appoint each one deputy who in mutual consultation shall settle the difference in price so occurred.

Should the two deputies fail to come to an understanding, both parties will then appoint an impartial third party, whose decision shall be final.

10. This contract has been made out in duplicate in English text and stamped and signed by both parties—each party holding one copy.

Peking, the 10th April, 1913

Signed ARNHOLD KARBERG, K. S. LIU, and Y. L. WOO.

The other contract is identical, except in the following clauses:—

1. In consideration of the separate loan agreement made between the Chinese Government and Messrs. Arnhold, Karberg and Co. for the amount of £1,200,000 the said Board hereby agrees to order from the said firm:

Six torpedo-boat destroyers hereinafter more particularly specified, and the said firm agrees to accept and carry out this order on the terms and conditions hereafter expressed.

2. The six torpedo-boat destroyers shall be of modern type and construction. The length is to be 260 feet, breadth 27 feet, draught 8.3 feet, speed 32 knots, number of propellers two, h.p. 24,500, and displacement 985 tons.

The destroyers shall be built by the Vulkan Shipbuilding Works in Stettin.

3. The armament of each boat shall consist of:

Two 4-inch 5 cal. Skoda Q.F. guns, with 200 rounds of ammunition each; four 12pdr. 50 cal. Skoda Q.F. guns, with 200 rounds of ammunition each; two 3pdr. Skoda Q.F. guns, 300 rounds of ammunition each; two torpedo tubes of 21 inches, with four torpedoes, type Blackhead (Schwarzkopff, Berlin).

4. The price of each boat shall be £145,057 net, delivery at Swinemünde.

5. The boats shall be delivered as follows:—

The first boat within 18 months after the definite settlement of this contract; one boat every two months after the first delivery, shipbuilder not to be responsible for delays owing to strikes or other *force majeure.*

6. Payments to be made as follows: £37,000 for each boat to be paid after the definite settlement of this contract; £37,000 for each boat to be paid one week after the launching of the respective boat or boats; £37,000 for each boat to be paid one week after successful trial of the respective boat or boats; £37,057 for each boat to be paid when handing over the respective boat or boats to the Board.

7, 8, 9 and 10 identical with other agreement.

EXTRACTS OF TWO AGREEMENTS

Agreement entered into this 10th day of April, 1913, between Chou Hsueh-hsi, President of the Board of Finance, formally appointed and authorized to act herein for and on behalf of the Chinese Government, and with the sanction of the National Council, on the one side, and Messrs. Arnhold, Karberg and Co., for and on behalf of a Group of Austrian Bankers, on the other side.

WHEREAS the Chinese Government desires to contract a loan of £2,000,000, part of which is to be applied to the purchase of certain torpedo boats . . . and WHEREAS the firm has agreed to lend this sum, subject to the condition that a separate contract subsidiary hereto for such torpedo boats as aforesaid shall be drawn up and executed at the same time as these presents . . . and that such part of the proceeds of the said loan as shall be sufficient to make payments for the said torpedo boats as and when the loans shall become due, shall be retained by the firm . . . and further that the said loan shall be secured upon the terms and conditions hereinafter set forth . . . it is hereby agreed :—

1. Payment to the Chinese Government within forty-five days of the final settlement of this contract of £1,206,200, being part of the proceeds of the loan of £2,000,000 . . . the balance of £793,800 shall be held by the firm to be applied in payment of the cost of the said torpedo boats as provided in the subsidiary contract. For this amount detailed accounts shall be submitted later on.

2. The Minister of Finance shall obtain the issue of a Presidential Order approving the terms hereof.

3. The Minister of Finance having obtained the sanction of the National Council to a loan for the equivalent of £20,000,000 ($200,000,000) the above loan shall be deemed to be made in pursuance of such sanction and to constitute part of such loan.

4. Notification of Waichiaopu to Austrian Minister.

5. Discount of 8%=92.

6*a*. 6% interest payable half-yearly, first payment 30/6/13.

b. Interest on balance of £793,800 at 6% to be paid to Government on all sums for the time being in the hands of the firm.

7. Repayment in five years from 1/1/13, namely: £666,500 on 31/12/1915; £666,500 on 31/12/1916; £667,000 on 31/12/17.

8. The Chinese Government engages that the principal and interest shall be paid in full at times and in the manner aforesaid. This loan shall be free from all taxes and imposts.

9. Subject to the rights of a prior charge which the loan of £300,000 concluded with the Poldi Huette, Vienna, on 1/3/13 has, . . . secured on the annual revenue derived from the tax on the transfer of title deeds, estimated yearly at about $10,000,000. . . . The Government will make good any deficit from other sources of revenue. . . . The above security is declared free from all other loans, charges and mortgages. The security is hereby transferred to an amount sufficient to cover the annual amortization and interest to the Austrian Minister. . . . So long as interest and repayment are fully paid in due time there shall be no

interference in the administration of the tax by the Austrian Minister. . . . Loan shall have priority over all other loans with regard to title deed tax. No loan shall be concluded which shall impair the security of this loan.

10. Bonds for £500.

11. Bonds to be redeemed 1–1333—31/12/1915.
1334–2666—31/12/1916.
2667–400—31/12/1917

12. Payment for the said Bonds when so drawn for redemption and all interest coupons . . . shall be made at the K. & K. priv. Landerbank, Vienna.

13. Funds for interest and amortization to be remitted by Government fourteen days before due date to Landerbank, Vienna.

14. Three copies: Minister of Finance, Minister of Navy. Signatures of Minister of Finance and A.K. and Co. in the presence of (Austrian Legation.)

Contract of second loan for £1,200,000 *almost identical.*
Amount is £1,200,000 instead of £2,000,000.

1. Within forty-five days of the final settlement of this contract, payment to the Government of £329,658, being part of proceeds of said loan of £1,200,000, the balance of £870,342 held by the firm to be applied in payment of cost of said torpedo boats.

6*b*. *Mutatis mutandis* same as other contract.

7. Repayable: £400,000 on 31/12/1915.
" " 31/12/1916.
" " 31/12/1917.

9. Subject to prior charge of Poldi Huette Loan of £300,000 of March 1st, 1913, and the loan of £2,000,000 of April 10.

11. Bonds to be redeemed 1–800 on 31/12/1915.
801–1600 on 31/12/1916.
1601–2400 on 31/12/1917.

III.—THE CRISP LOAN

The agreement for the Crisp Loan was published in the 1913 Year Book. After the flotation of half the Loan, which was for £10,000,000, it was agreed that the flotation of the second half and Clause 14, stipulating that no other external loan should be issued or authorised on more favourable terms than those contained in the Crisp contract, until the whole of the loan had been issued to the public, should be cancelled. The issuing firm received £150,000 as compensation.

£5,000,000 *issued September* 28, 1912—

Proceeds payable to the Chinese Government 89 *per cent*, £4,450,000.

Loan Agreement Article VII.

(2) The principal sum of £10,000,000 nominal shall be paid to the Chinese Government, as follows :—

£					
500,000	nominal	on or	before	September 30,	1912.
1,500,000	,,	,,	,,	October 30,	,,
1,000,000	,,	,,	,,	November 30,	,,
2,000,000	,,	,,	,,	February 15,	1913.

And the balance £5,000,000 on or before September 30, 1913.

Actual dates when the proceeds of the Loan were available :—

	£	s.	d.				
1912—September 23	500,000	0	0				First three instalments as above £3,000,000 at 89 = £2,670,000
October 5 .	300,000	0	0				
,, 10 .	700,000	0	0				
,, 30 .	500,000	0	0				
November 28	670,000	0	0				
				2,670,000	0	0	
1913—January 17 .	50,000	0	0				Fourth instalment as above, payable on or before February 15, 1913 :— £2,000,000 at 89 = £1,780,000
February 6 .	750,000	0	0				
,, 22 .	200,000	0	0				
March 10 .	100,000	0	0				
,, 15 .	150,000	0	0				
				1,250,000	0	0	
Future Payments made :—							
1913—March 28 .	100,000	0	0				
April 6 .	134,687	10	0				
				234,687	10	0	
Balance accounted for as follows :—							
Interest Coupon, due March 30 . .	125,000	0	0				
Bankers' Commission, ¼ per cent .	312	10	0				
Discount and Cost of Issue of Treasury Bills, £500,000 .	20,000	0	0				
Compensation for Cancellation of £5,000,000 unissued . .	150,000	0	0				
				295,312	10	0	
Total . . .				£4,450,000	0	0	

E.—THE SALT GABELLE

By the terms of the Reorganization Loan Agreement, the Chinese Government agreed to take immediate steps for the reorganization, with the assistance of foreigners, of the system of collection of the salt revenues. A Central Salt Administration was to be established in Peking under the control of the Minister of Finance, with a Chief

Inspectorate under a Chinese Chief Inspector and a foreign Associate Chief Inspector, who were to constitute the chief authority for the superintendence of the issue of licences and the compilation of reports and returns of revenue. The Chief Inspectors appointed were Chang Chun, Vice-Minister of Finance, and Sir Richard Dane (British).

The taxes on salt are now regulated by Provisional Order No. 43, promulgated on December 24, 1913. This Order is as follows :—

I, the President, hereby promulgate the law governing the collection of Salt Duty.

1. With the exception of Mongolia, Chinghai, Sinkiang, and Tibet, which, owing to their special conditions, do not come under this law, all salt-producing areas in the Chinese Republic will come under this law on the day of its promulgation.

2. The salt-producing areas and places of consumption are divided into two districts :—

First District : Fengtien, Chihli, Shantung, Shansi, Kansu, Shensi, and the northern part of Kiangsu. These are termed "First salt-producing district." The places of consumption of the first district are Kirin, Heilungkiang, Honan, and the northern part of Anhui.

Second District : Huainan in Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Kuangtung, Szechuan, Yunnan are the salt-producing areas of the second district ; and southern Anhui, Kiangsi, Hupeh, Hunan, Kuangsi, and Kueichow are the places of consumption of the second district.

3. The regular rate for Salt duty is $2·50 per 100 catties, but from now to the first day of the first month of the fourth year of the Chinese Republic (January 1, 1915), with the exception of the second district where the old rates will be maintained, a new rate of $2·00 per 100 catties will be charged at places within the first district.

4. Salt imported from special places shall be taxed in accordance with the regulations as laid down in the Article 3.

5. Prior to the first day of the first month of the fourth year of the Chinese Republic (January 1, 1915), in case of salt transported from the second district to the first district, it shall be taxed as if it is in the first district, and when salt is transported from the first district to the second district a second charge will be collected by the Salt Office of the second district to make up the rate of the second district.

6. Salt duty which had previously been included in the land tax will be exempted from payment by a Presidential Order.

7. With the exception of those places which had previously been prohibited by the Government to manufacture salt, all native-salt-producing areas will come under this law.

8. Salt duty will be collected at all salt-producing areas ; but in the case of salt transported as mentioned in the fourth article, it can be taxed at the time of its entry into another district.

9. Prior to the promulgation of the law governing the Government weights and measures, the fixed weight of the salt will be sixteen ounces

and eight mace for every catty, one hundred catties will make one picul, and sixteen piculs will make one English ton.

10. Prior to the fixing of the salt bags by the Government the weight of bags will be temporarily reckoned in accordance with the usual procedure in every salt-producing area.

11. Allowance for reduction in weight on account of melting will be fixed by Ministerial Order in accordance with the quality of the salt, with the condition of the weather, and the distance of the places from the salt-producing areas.

12. This law will come into effect for the first district on and from the first day of the first month of the third year of the Chinese Republic (January 1, 1914), and will take effect throughout the country on the first day of the first month of the fourth year of the Republic (January 1, 1915). This Provisional Order will become non-effective after the promulgation of the permanent Salt Law. During the continuance of the Provisional Law, in case of one or more salt-producing areas experiencing any inconvenience they will be permitted to state their reasons, which must be strong enough to warrant them to do so, to the Minister of Finance, through the Salt Commissioners, with a request for permission to postpone the date of enforcement. But no place is allowed a second extension of time.

13. The detailed regulations of this Law will be fixed by Ministerial Order.

The Salt Revenue

Up to the end of 1918 the Chief Inspectorate of the Central Salt Administration had issued three detailed statements of accounts, the last giving the results of the working of the Administration for the year ending December 31, 1915. No report accompanies these statements. The following tables are taken from the 1915 accounts :—

Comparative Statement of Receipts and Disbursements of Revenue (1914 and 1915)

Receipts	1914	1915
Balance at January 1—	$	$
Cash in Various Offices	544,918·23	2,720,875·08
Cash in Collecting Banks	756,745·09	834,717·29
Transfers in transit to Group Banks	1,137,070·29	186,600·48
Cash in Group Banks	11,002,219·78	17,178,210·71
Revenue Collections per District Inspectorates	50,908,402·77	59,727,870·17
Miscellaneous Receipts per District Inspectorates	—	8,552 02
Special Government Withdrawals Refunded	—	1,092,724-52
Remittances from Government Transportation Offices	15,961,532·80	14,967,373·49
Interest Credited by Group Banks	231,825·03	197,052·89
District Inspectorate Suspense (Advances on Account of Duty, etc.)	1,045,888·24	—
Total	81,588,602·23	96,913,976·65

Disbursements	$	$
Administration Expenses Defrayed	5,148,039·46	5,100,373·41
Transfer Charges and Loss by Exchange	3,024,745·67[1]	1,023,050·92
Special Government Withdrawals	73,793·53	—
Charges and Obligations Secured on Salt Revenue	21,106,572·99	34,599,082·38
Releases to Government	31,304,818·22	27,523,066·47
Miscellaneous Withdrawals	10,228·80	—
Miscellaneous Charges	—	55,551·00
District Inspectorate Suspense	—	135,223·59
Balance at December 31—		
Cash in Various Offices	2,720,875·08	1,179,223·44
Cash in Collecting Banks	834,717·29	2,671,419·44
Transfers in Transit to Group Banks	186,600·48	300,919·41
Cash in Group Banks	17,178,210·71	24,326,066·59
Total	81,588,602·23	96,913,976·65

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[1] Mainly due to acceptance of depreciated Canton notes.

COMPARATIVE STATEMENT OF SALT REVENUE DEPOSITED IN AND WITHDRAWN FROM THE GROUP BANKS (1914 AND 1915)

Deposits	1914	1915
Balance at January 1—		
In Group Banks	11,002,219·78	17,178,210·71
In Transit between Group Banks	477,807·05	150,275·10
Proceeds of Salt Revenue	60,409,675·75	69,277,536·42
Interest Credited by Group Banks	231,825·03	197,052·89
Total	72,121,527·61	86,803,075·12
Withdrawals		
Charges and Obligations Secured on Salt Revenue—		
(1) Anglo-German Loan of 1898	2,700,024·61	—
(2) Chinese Indemnity of 1901	13,505,833·75	23,787,463·37
(3) Hupeh Provincial Bonds of 1909	99,561·15	149,343·22
(4) Chihli Provincial Bonds of 1910	725,973·90	731,128·00
(5) Chinese Government 5% Gold Crisp Loan of 1912	4,075,179·58	2,998,885·11
(6) Chinese Government 5% Gold Reorganization Loan of 1913	—	6,932,262·68
	21,106,572·99	34,599,082·38
Releases to Government	31,304,818·22	27,523,066·47
Transfer Charges and Loss by Exchange	2,371,421·79	272,744·05
Miscellaneous Withdrawals	10,228·80	22,991·00
Balance at December 31:		
In Group Banks	17,178,210·71	24,326,066·59
In Transit between Group Banks	150,275·10	59,124·63
Total	72,121,527·61	86,803,075·12

Comparative Statement of Revenue and Expenditure in the District Offices, 1914 and 1915

Revenue

	1914	1915
	$	$
Balance Brought Forward—		
Debtor Accounts—		
Revenue Receivable	2,147,823·01	1,699,214·10
Cash in Various Offices	544,918·23	2,720,875·08
Cash in Collecting Banks	756,745·09	834,717·29
Suspense	—	—
Special Government Withdrawals	1,248,330·99	1,322,124·52
	4,697,817·32	6,576,930·99
Less Creditor Accounts		
Expenses	451,257·07	200,271·85
Sundry Creditors	—	1,045,888·24
	451,257·07	1,246,160·09
Revenue Receivable—		
Direct Duty	44,013,777·58	53,776,778·61
Miscellaneous Revenue	6,446,016·28	5,766,375·53
Miscellaneous Receipts	—	8,552·02
Total	54,706,354·11	64,882,477·05
Quantity of Salt Released in Ssu-ma Scale Piculs	28,926,603·00	28,754,619·00

Expenditure

	1914	1915
Administration Expenses Incurred	4,897,054·24	4,989,770·11
Transfer Charges and Loss by Exchange	653,323·88	750,306·17
Transfers to Group Banks	48,825,205·09	54,515,632·33
Miscellaneous Charges	—	32,560,00
Balance Carried Forward :—		
Debtor Accounts		
Revenue Receivable	1,699,214·10	1,514,498·06
Cash in Various Offices	2,720,875·08	1,179,223·44
Cash in Collecting Banks	834,717·29	2,671,419·44
Suspense	—	—
Special Government Withdrawals	1,322,124·52	229,400·00
	6,576,930·99	5,594,540·94
Less Creditor Accounts		
Expenses	200,271·85	89,668·55
Sundry Creditors	1,045,888·24	910,664·65
	1,246,160·09	1,000,333·20
Total	54,706,352·11	64,882,477·05

SUMMARY OF STATEMENTS SHOWING THE FINANCIAL RESULT OF THE OPERATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT AND OTHER TRANSPORTATION AND COLLECTING OFFICES DURING THE YEAR 1915

Name of Office.	Total Revenue to be accounted for by the Offices.	Establishment Expenses and cost of Preventive Service.	Sundry Payments and expenses and funds in deposit with local Banks.	Special Withdrawals by Provincial Authorities, etc.	Advance payments of duty made to the District Inspectorates and payments of duty received through the Salt Commissioners.	Amount transferred to the Group Banks direct by the Transportation Offices.	Balance outstanding on the 31st December, 1915, still to be accounted for.
Four Yangtze Transportation Offices—	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Hupeh	7,124,376·96	259,956·82	410,004·75	—	1,314,277·13	2,721,549·99	3,947,393·02
Hunan	11,698,941·79	370,851·05	319,420·24	522,660·00	2,670,800·23	4,332,476·93	6,966,698·95
Kiangsi	5,733,584·18	151,850·01	19,871·20	428,726·74	1-739.857·79	2,662,634·98	2,721,517·16
Anhui	3,082,520 37	160,620·23	74,697.13	851,654·17	1,406,328·84	1,689,338·31	1,195,280·09
Total	27,639,423·30	943,278·11	823,993·32	1,803,040·91	7,131,263·99	11,396,000.21	14,830,889·22
Collecting Offices—	$	$	$	$	$	$	$
Ichang	3,123,923·83	51,284·61	301,178·57	—	—	2,545,008·39	226,452·31
Shasi	246,078·52	53,057·34	—	—	—	100,764·72	92,256·56
Mongolian Salt Office	399 087·38	130,281·71	1,426·00	—	—	211,000·00	56,379·67
Huating	344,270·26	50,998·55	29,296·94	—	—	100,000·00	163,974·77
Total	4,113,359·99	285,622·21	331.901·51	Nil	Nil	2,956,773·11	539,063·31
					Payments of duty to the District Inspectorates for salt transported.		
Government Transportation Offices—	$	$	$		$	$	$
Kihei	7,224,849·94	375,235·79	1,317,948·47	145,906·95	2,037,160·00 [1]	100,000·00	3,248,598·73
Chinpei	993,464·27	88,178·32	309,895·85	—	147,340·00	202,950·00	245,100·00
Kwangsi	803,088·56	103,535·71	23,305·43	—	374,468·97	280,000·00	11,778·45
Kweichow	1,067,777·54	54,054·90	437,124·17	526,598·47	—	50,000·00	956,466·78
Hotung	127,896·30	—	—	—	—	— [3]	127,896·30
Chengyangkuan	234,515·60	—	—	—	—	81,650·17 [2]	152,865·43
Su Wu Shu	85,071·21	—	—	—	66.363·68	— [4]	18,707·53
Total	10,536,663·42	621,004·72	2,088,273·92	672,505·42	2,625,332·65	714,600·17	4.761,413·22
Grand Total	42,289,446·71	1,849,905·04	3,244,168·75	2,475,546·33	9,756,596·64	15,067,373·49	20.131,365·75

[1] Paid into the Bank of China, Peking, for Chief Inspectorate expenses.

[2] Collected in 1916 and merged in the account of the Hotung District Inspectorate.

[3] Balance collected in 1916 and merged in the account of Haichow District Inspectorate.

[written off.

SALT REVENUE FOR 1917

The following is the statement of salt revenue deposited in and withdrawn from the Group Banks during the year 1917 :—

Deposits

	$	$
Balance at January 1, 1917:		
In Group Banks	18,593,717·82	
In Transit between Group Banks	950,086·85	19,543,804·67
Proceeds of Salt Revenue	—	70,627,249·62
Interest Credited by Group Banks	—	258,903·42
Chinese Indemnity of 1901—Part of 1916 Contributions refunded by Maritime Customs	—	5,474,502·50
Miscellaneous Withdrawals refunded	44,656·40	—
Less Miscellaneous Withdrawals	20,111·52	24,544·88
Total		95,929,005·09

Withdrawals

Charges and Obligations Secured on Salt Revenue:		
(1) Anglo-German Loan of 1898	—	
(2) Chinese Indemnity of 1901—*vide contra*	—	
(3) Hupeh Provincial Bonds of 1909	50,048·01	
(4) Chihli Provincial Bonds of 1910	725,973·89	
(5) Chinese Government 5% Gold Crisp Loan of 1912	1,740,887·61	
(6) Chinese Government 5% Gold Reorganization Loan of 1913 $9,004,869·40	—	
Less Instalments for July-November, 1917, Refunded by Maritime Customs $3,384,479·86	5,620,392·54	
(7) Hukuang Railways Loan of 1911	376,094·13	8,513,396·18
Releases to Government	—	68,613,370·22
Transfer Charges and Loss by Exchange	—	436,635·47
Balance at December 12, 1916—		
In Group Banks	17,983,391·93	
In Transit between Group Banks	382,211·29	18,365,603·22
Total		95,929,005·09

The following table gives the estimated statement of general charges on the Salt Gabelle prepared in connexion with the Reorganization Loan :—

ESTIMATED STATEMENT OF

NOTE.—It should be understood that the following estimate is subject to
For simplicity all amounts are

No.	LOAN.	Date.	Amount.	Term (years).
1	ANGLO-GERMAN LOAN . . .	1898	£16,000,000 . .	45
2*	BOXER INDEMNITY . . .	1901	Taels 450,000,000 .	39
3	LOAN TO HUKUANG VICEROY . .	Sept., 1907	Taels 2,000,000 .	10
4	ANGLO-FRENCH LOAN . . .	1908	£5,000,000 . .	30
5	LOAN TO HUKUANG VICEROY . .	Aug., 1909	Taels 500,000 .	10
6	HUPEH PROVINCIAL BONDS . .	1909	Taels 2,400,000 .	7
7	CHIHLI PROVINCIAL BONDS . .	1910	Taels 3,200,000 .	8
8	LOAN TO LIANG KIANG VICEROY .	Dec., 1910	Taels 3,000,000 .	6
9†	CURRENCY LOAN . . .	April, 1911	£10,000,000 . .	45
10	HUKUANG RAILWAYS LOAN . .	May, 1911	£10,000,000 . . (£6,000,000 issued)	40
11	HUPEH PROVINCIAL 7% SILVER LOAN	Aug., 1911	Taels 2,000,000 .	10
12	CHINESE 5% GOLD LOAN . .	Aug., 1912	£5,000,000 . . First issue.	40

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* The charge of the Indemnity on the Salt Gabelle increases in 1916 to Taels 24,483,800, but

ENERAL CHARGES ON SALT GABELLE

ctuations of Gold exchange and to variations of the Customs Revenue collection.
koned in Haikuan Taels.

SECURITY.	Taels.	Taels.	Made by.
lt Likin, Ichang	1,000,000		Hongkong Bank and Deutsch-Asiatische Bank.
,, Hupeh	500,000		
,, Anhui	300,000		
		1,800,000	
nnuity		19,899,000	——
dditional "Yao Cheng" Salt Likin, Hupeh		400,000	Yokohama Specie Bank.
d and New additional Tax on Salt in Chekiang Province	600,000		Hongkong Bank and Banque de l'Indo-Chine.
ew additional Tax on Salt in Kiangsu Province	700,000		
d and New additional Tax on Szechuan and Huai Salt	600,000		
lt Commissioner's Treasury, Province of Chihli, Revenue from additional Salt Tax	200,000		
ew additional Tax on Salt, Province of Chihli	250,000		
		2,350,000	
cond mortgage on the Salt Securities hypothecated to the Anglo-German Loan, 1898		74,000	Hongkong Bank.
lt Treasury, Hupeh (the rest of the security is furnished from other sources)		100,000	——
lt Commissioner's Treasury, Chihli	350,000		
ofits of Sale of Government's Salt at Yung Ping, Chihli	150,000		
		500,000	——
e "Shou Hwui Fu Chia Pa Cheng" Salt Likin of the four Salt Districts of Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi and Anhui	300,000		Hongkong Bank, Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, Banque de l'Indo-Chine.
he additional Kiangnan "Yao Cheng" Salt Duties	320,000		
Hai Fun Shih Wu Cheng" Salt Likin of Liang Hui	120,000		
		740,000	
ewly added surtax upon Salt of all the Provinces of China		2,500,000	Americ'n Group, Hongkong Bank, Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, Bqe. de l'Indo-Chine.
upeh Additional Salt Tax	400,000		Hongkong Bank, Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, Banque de l'Indo-Chine and American Group.
upeh New Additional Two Cash Salt Tax of September, 1908	300,000		
unan Salt Commissioner's Treasury Regular Salt Likin	250,000		
		950,000	
hird Mortgage on Salt Securities hypothecated to Anglo-German Loan of 1898		460,000	Ditto.
nnual Interest . . £250,000			Crisp Syndicate.
mortization after 1922 . 166,666			
£416,666 @ 3/-		2,778,000	
Gross Annual Charge on Salt Gabelle		32,551,000	
From which should be deducted :—			
stimated available surplus of Maritime Customs Revenue	10,000,000		
alt hypothecated to 1898 Loan, service of which is met entirely from Customs Revenue	1,800,000		
		11,800,000	
et Estimated Annual Charge on Salt Gabelle, Haikuan Taels		20,751,000	

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ere is a corresponding decrease of the charges of other loans on the Customs Revenue. † Not yet issued.

BANKS

The following foreign Banks operate in China :—

British

Chartered Bank of India, Australia and China. *Head Office:* London. *Branches:* Canton, Foochow, Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin.

Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation. *Head Office:* Hongkong. *Branches:* Amoy, Canton, Foochow, Hankow, Harbin, Peking, Shanghai (with Sub-Agency at Hongkew), Tientsin, Tsingtao.

Mercantile Bank of India, Ltd. *Head Office:* London. *Branches:* Hongkong, Shanghai.

Other Nationalities

American—Oriental Banking Corporation. *Head Office:* Shanghai.

Banque Belge pour l'Etranger. *Head Office:* Peking. *Branches:* Hongkong, Shanghai, Tientsin.

Banque de l'Indo-Chine. *Head Office:* Paris. *Branches:* Canton, Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin.

Banque Industrielle de Chine. *Head Office:* Peking. *Registered Office:* 13, Boulevard Haussmann, Paris. *Branches:* Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin, Yunnanfu.

Banque Sino-Belge. *Head Office:* Brussels. *Branches:* Shanghai, Tientsin.

Credit Foncier d'Extreme Orient.

Bank of Chosen (Korea). *Head Office:* Seoul (Korea). *Branches:* Tsingtao, Shanghai, Mukden, Dairen, Changchun, Antung, Ssupingkai, Kaiyuan, Yingkow (Newchwang), Harbin, Fuchiatien, Kirin, Lungchingtsun, Rioyun, Tiehling, Liaoyang, Chenchiatun.

(Deutsch-Asiatische Bank. *Head Office:* Berlin. *Branches:* Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Tientsin, Tsinanfu, Tsingtao.)

International Banking Corporation. *Head Office:* New York. *Branches:* Canton, Hankow, Hongkong, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin.

Nederlandsche Handel-Maatschappij (Netherlands Trading Society). *Head Office:* Amsterdam. *Branches:* Hongkong, Shanghai.

Russo-Asiatic Bank. *Head Office:* St. Petersburg. *Branches:* Chefoo, Hailar, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Kashgar, Kuldja, Kuanchengtze, Newchwang, Peking, Shanghai, Tientsin, Tsitsihar.

Sumitomo Bank, Ltd. *Head Office:* Osaka. *Branch:* Shanghai.

Yokohama Specie Bank. *Head Office:* Yokohama. *Branches:* Antung, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Kaiyuan, Kuanchengtze (Changchun), Liaoyang, Mukden, Newchwang, Peking, Port Arthur, Tairen (Dalny), Tiehling, Tientsin, Tsinanfu, Tsingtao.

Bank of Taiwan, Ltd. *Head Office:* Taipeh, Taiwan (Formosa). *Branches and Agencies:* Amoy, Canton, Foochow, Hankow, Kiukiang, Hongkong, Shanghai, Swatow.

Exchange Bank of China (Huaiyeh Bank). January, 1918. Chinese and Japanese capital. *Head Office:* Peking. *President*, Lu Tsung-yu; *Vice-President*, T. Kakiuchi (three Chinese and three Japanese Directors).

Asia Banking Corporation. Formed in 1918 under the laws of New York State. Capital $2,000,000. *Head Office:* Shanghai.

New Undertakings

Among the new banks recently established or in process of formation may be mentioned the following:—

Sino-American Bank. Capital, $10,000,000 Mex. Promoted by San Francisco Chinese. Shares equally divided between American and Chinese shareholders.

Sino-Japanese Bank. Capital, Yen 10,000,000. Head Office, Shanghai. Shares equally divided between the Chino-Japanese Industrial Co. and Chinese capitalists.

Japan-China Bank. Capital, Tls. 5,000,000. Head Office, Tsingtao.

Bank of Manchuria. Capital, Yen 10,000,000. Head Office, Mukden. In connexion with the Yokohama Specie Bank. General banking business and loans on real estate in connexion with the development of South Manchuria and East Mongolia.

National Bank of Mongolia. Head Office, Petrograd. Branches at Kulun, Uliassutai and Kobdo. Capital, Rbls. 1,000,000. Founded by a syndicate, with the Commercial Bank of Siberia as its nucleus. The Mongolian Government to receive 15 per cent of the net profits and to have the option of purchasing the undertaking at the end of fifty years.

The composition of the Six Power Group of Banks, since reduced to the Quintuple Group by the withdrawal of the American Banks, was as follows:—

British Group

Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation.
Messrs. Baring Brothers.
Messrs. Henry Schröder and Co.
The London County and Westminster Bank.
Parr's Bank.

German Group

Direction der Disconto-Gesellschaft, Berlin.
S. Bleichröder, Berlin.
Deutsche Bank, Berlin.
Berliner Handels-Gesellschaft, Berlin.
Bank für Handel und Industrie, Berlin.
Mendelssohn and Co., Berlin.
Dresdner Bank, Berlin.

A. Schaaffhausen'scher Bankverein, Berlin.
Nationalbank für Deutschland, Berlin.
Deutsch-Asiatische Bank, Shanghai.
Jacob, S.H. Stern, Frankfurt a/M.
Sal. Oppenheim, Jr. und Cie., Köln.
Norddeutsche Bank in Hamburg, Hamburg.
L. Behrens and Söhne, Hamburg.
Bayerische Hypotheken-und Wechselbank, München.

French Group

Banque de l'Indo-Chine, Paris.
Banque de Paris et des Pays-Bas, Paris.
Comptoir National d'Escompte de Paris, Paris.
Crédit Lyonnais, Paris.
Société Générale pour favoriser le développement du Commerce et de l'Industrie en France, Paris.
Société Générale de Crédit industriel et commercial, Paris.
Banque de l'Union Parisienne, Paris.
Banque française pour le Commerce et l'Industrie, Paris.
Crédit mobilier française, Paris.

United States of America Group

Messrs. J. P. Morgan and Co.
Messrs. Kuhn, Loeb and Co.
The First National Bank, and
The National City Bank.
All of New York.

Russian Group

Banque Russo-Asiatique.
A. Spitzer and Co.[1]
J. Henry Schröder and Co.[2]
Eastern Bank, Limited.[2]
Banque Sino-Belge.
Société Belge d'Études de Chemin de Fer en Chine.
Société Générale de Belgique.
Banque d'Outre-mer.

Japanese Group

Yokohama Specie Bank.

Chinese Banks

The number of Banks in China is legion, as until recently there has been no law requiring banks to be organized and incorporated. Banking business could be established with almost as little formality as any other trade. The capital of the majority of these institutions is small, and in many instances will not amount to more than a few hundred pounds. There are many banks of some standing (apart from the reputation attaching in general to the Shansi Guild of Banks, that province being the traditional cradle of banking in China), but they have suffered in the past from a weakness for uncontrolled issues of bank-notes and often of paper money of the smallest dimensions. With the inauguration of the Republic a great stimulus has been given to the adoption of modern banking methods, the lead being taken by the Bank of China, established in 1912 to take the place of the Ta-Ching Bank, which had been recognized by the Manchu Government as the official bank of China. A Native Bankers' Association in Shanghai restricts its membership to those banks which conduct their business more or less on foreign lines.

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[1] French. [2] British.

Among the chief Chinese banking institutions are :—

The Bank of China (Tung Kua Nien Hong). The Central Office of this Bank, in Peking, was opened on August 1, 1912. Has 92 branches and sub-branches ; employés number over 1000. In Peking two departments—the head offices for the whole of China and the Peking branch. Controlled by four directors appointed by the Central Government, but under the immediate management of the Governor, Mr. F. M. Sah. Has adopted modern Western methods of keeping its books, using Arabic figures exclusively and employing foreign writing implements. Reorganized in 1913. Business turnover now well over 2 milliard dollars. Bank is being called upon to play an important part in the reorganization of the revenues of the country. Is already the bank of deposit in the interior for large collections of salt tax revenue, and it will handle much of the revenue collected as land tax. Will figure prominently in currency reform, as it has already done in connection with the efforts of the Government to ameliorate the distress caused by the over issue of provincial bank-notes and their consequent depreciation.

Started business with a capital of $10,000,000, of which less than half actually subscribed in cash. Article XVI of its Regulations delayed the formation of a directorate and inspectorate until private capital should have subscribed 100,000 shares, and control remained in the hands of the Government. The Banks regulations were amended on November 21, 1917, with a view to encouraging subscriptions. Shareholders may now vote for directors and inspectors without waiting for the public subscription to reach 100,000 shares, or to be equal in amount to the shares held by the Government. It was also decided to limit the capital for a period of years to $10,000,000. Public subscriptions to the amount of $5,000,000 were subsequently received, and the Government undertook to pay in cash the other $5,000,000, withdrawing the bonds that it originally put up as its share.

Statement for year ending December 31, 1914:	$
Bank's reserve fund	113,068.95
Balance brought forward from 1913	9,567.60
Fixed deposits	8,909,379.57
Current deposits	49,482,306.13
Notes in circulation	16,398,178.71
Net profit for 1914	1,368,719.73

ASSETS

Subscribed but unpaid capital	50,000,000.00
Fixed loans	12,389,947.56
Current advances	36,498,052.61
Bills discounted	1,079,796.50
Sundry investments	7,139,218.10
Bank premises, lands, furniture, etc.	1,805,635.23
Reserve against notes issued	16,398,178.71
Cash in hand	10,970,391.98
Total	$136,281,220.69

LIABILITIES

Capital authorized	60,000,000.00
Reserve fund	113,068.95
Brought forward from last account	9,567.60
Fixed deposits	8,909,379.57
Current deposits	49,482,306.13
Notes in circulation	16,398,178.71
Net profit for the year	1,368,719.73
Total	$136,281,220.69

DISBURSEMENTS

	$
Working expenditure	1,157,720.88
Provision for land and buildings	124,479.11
Miscellaneous losses	8,506.13
Net profit for 1914	1,368,719.73
Total	$2,659,425.85

INCOME

Exchanged profit	1,265,863.17
Interest earned	1,232,635.59
Interest on discounted bills	63,790.61
Miscellaneous profits	97,136.48
Total	$2,659,425.85

Progress of the Bank.

1913. When reorganized deposits amounted to $17,000,000.
1914. (End) Deposits advanced to $57,000,000, an increase of $40,000,000.
1913. Cash reserve against notes, $5,000,000.
1914. Ditto ditto $20,000,000.
1913. Cash on hand (excepting note reserve) $3,500,000.
1914. Ditto ditto ditto $15,500,000.
1913. Net profit, $280,000.
1914. Ditto $1,400,000.
1915. Ditto $2,600,000.

Bank allows 2 per cent a year on current accounts in Peking, but this rate varies in the different branches, 2½ per cent being allowed in certain places. Usual rate on what in foreign practice would be known as commercial overdrafts is 8–9 per cent, but most of the commercial loan business is done on a different basis, the loan being made in each individual case upon a rate and security suitable to that particular case.

The Bank of Communications (Chiao Tung Bank). Established by Mr. Sheng Hsuan-huai as the official Bank of the Ministry of Communications. The capital is Kuping Tls. 10,000,000, of which Tls. 4,000,000 has been subscribed by the Government, and Tls. 6,000,000 by private subscribers. The Head Office is at Peking, and there are branches in Changchun, Changsha, Chefoo, Hankow, Hongkong, Hsuchow, Ichang, Kaifeng, Kalgan, Loyang, Mukden, Pukow, Shanghai, Singapore, Tientsin, Tsinan, Wuhu, Wusieh, Yangchow, and Yingkou; and agencies at forty-four other places. Net profit 1914, Tls. 1,600,000; 1915, Tls. 2,100,000. A presidential mandate of November 1, 1915, gave the Bank a definite official status, with power to issue notes, authorizing it to assume charge, concurrently with the Bank of China, of matters connected with currency reform and the improvement of the national credit. *President* (1918), Tsao Ju-lin; *Vice-President*, Jen Fung-pao.

Imperial Bank of China. Head Office, Shanghai. Managing directors, Chinese, but foreign managers at Shanghai and Peking.

Commercial Guarantee Bank of Chihli. Authorized capital, Tls. 4,000,000. Paid-up capital, Tls. 1,000,000. Under the control of a Board of six directors, three of whom are foreigners, and three Chinese. Head Office in Tientsin City, branch office at Peking. Started in connection with a financial crisis in Tientsin to relieve the local market, and assist Chinese merchants to meet their obligations.

The Bank of Canton, Ltd. Registered capital, $2,000,000. This Bank was registered under the Hongkong Ordinances, and was opened on March 24, 1912. The capital, however, is all provided by Chinese shareholders. It is to be run upon European lines.

The Bank of the Salt Industry. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $5,000,000, $2,000,000 subscribed by Ministry of Finance. Branches, Tientsin, Shanghai. Director, Chang Chen-shang.

The Bank of Territorial Development. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $20,000,000, authorized. Branches, Shanghai, Hangchow. Modelled on foreign lines.

Minkuo Industrial Bank. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $20,000,000 in 200,000 shares of $100. Half of the capital provided by the Government. Branches to be formed in the chief trading centres. Objects, to finance industrial enterprises, and undertake transport and insurance business.

Bank of Kuangtung. Head Office, Hongkong. Promoted in San Francisco with a view to handling remittances by Chinese emigrants. Managing Director, Lu Pun-shan.

Sinhua Savings Bank. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $1,000,000. Capital raised by the Bank of Communications. Government Bank responsible for a system of Premium Bonds.

Fohsin Colonization Bank. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $5,000,000. Founded by Wang Chang-yao and other merchants to develop the natural resources of the three Eastern Provinces.

Shanghai Commerce and Savings Bank.

Industrial and Commercial Bank (Ltd.). Head Office, Hongkong. Capital, $1,000,000 (Hongkong currency). *President*, Tien Tao-cheng.

Hua Fu Chih Yeh Bank. Head Office, Peking. Capital, $6,000,000.

In a statement issued by the Ministry of Finance in 1915 the following were enumerated as Government banks, the sums in brackets representing their reserve funds at the time :—

Anhui-Chunghua Bank ($200,000), Chekiang Government Bank ($3,000,000), Chihli Government Bank ($1,820,000), Fengtien Government Bank ($736.900), Heilungkiang Government Bank ($679,000), Heilungkiang Kuanghsen Kangssu ($845,295), Hunan Bank ($736,100), Kiangsi Bank ($871,100), Kiangsu Bank ($600,000), Kirin Kwan-Chien-Chü ($3,360,000), Kuangtung Kwan-Chien-Chü ($10,265,000), Szechuan Chunchuanyuan Bank ($600,000), Yunnan Fushen Bank ($2,085,000).

In October, 1915, regulations were approved for the establishment of an agricultural and industrial bank in each *hsien* (district) with a capital of not less than $100,000. Two banks were established in the metropolitan district, at Changping and Tungchou, to serve as models. The capital of each was $200,000.

In the lower Yangtze Valley the following native Banks are prominent :—

Ningpo Commercial Bank. Head Office, Shanghai. Capital, $1,500,000 (£150,000 approx.), half paid-up.

Sun Chun Bank. Head Office, Shanghai. Capital, $1,000,000 (£100,000 approx.), half paid-up. The note issue is estimated at equivalent to the paid-up capital.

Shing Nih Chartered Bank. Head Office, Hangchow. Capital, $1,000,000 (£100,000 approx.), one-fourth paid-up. Has a large note issue.

Yue Soo Imperial Bank. Head Office, Soochow (Kiangsu). Capital, $200,000 (£20,000 approx.). This Bank is said to have been started by a Governor of Soochow with money loaned by him, and the large note issue was guaranteed by him.

Kiangnan Yu Ning Bank. Head Office, Nanking. Capital, $200,000 (£20,000 approx.). Said to have been started by a former Viceroy of Nanking, and the large note issue was guaranteed by the Nanking Provincial Government.

F.—STAMP DUTIES

A Bill enacting new stamp duties was promulgated on October 21, 1912. It provided a scale of stamp duties for all transactions involving the transfer of money or goods, or documents, deeds or certificates, and stamp duty was also to be paid upon all mercantile pass and account books.

The stamp duties are divided into two classes.

Class (*a*) includes bills, amounting to $10 and upwards, receipts or documents for the deposit of goods of the value of $10 or upwards, and the following (to which the proviso of $10 or upwards applies in every case): receipts for goods hired; receipts for goods deposited as security; undertakings to cultivate land; pawn-tickets; contracts, and agreements for hiring employees. On all the above a stamp duty of 1 cent is payable. Upon invoices; leases of property; orders in advance; contracts for the lease of land or houses; guarantee bonds; receipts for money paid; pass books (annually); and all other business books of account (annually), a stamp duty of 2 cents is payable.

Class (*b*) consists of: bills of lading; all kinds of contracts for sale or purchase; insurance policies; bonds of all kinds; receipts for the deposit of moneys; share scrip; drafts; promissory notes; documents in connection with the division of the property of deceased persons; acknowledgments of indebtedness (IOU's), partnership contracts. For all the documents enumerated in Class (*b*) the following scale of stamp duty is to be enforced:—

Where the documents are of a face value of	$10	to ...$100 ...	2 cents
,, ,, ,, ,,	$100	,, ...$500 ...	4 ,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	$500	,, ...$1000 ...	10 ,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	$1000	,, ...$5000 ...	20 ,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	$5000	,, ...$10,000...	50 ,,
,, ,, ,, ,,	$10,000	,, ...$50,000...	$1
,, ,, ,, ,,	$50,000	upwards...	$1·50

Stamps are to be attached to the above documents, and either signed or "chopped" (sealed). Where two copies of any document are required stamp duty must be paid upon each. In the case of pass and account books the stamp is to be affixed to the first page, and the date is to be written in such a manner that half appears on the stamp and half on the page. The signature or chop of the person using it is also to be written across the stamp. Every book so stamped may be used for the whole of that year. If the book be used for the ensuing year stamps must again be affixed in the same manner to the page at which that year's entries begin. Unless documents and books are stamped in accordance with the above regulations they will not be accepted as proofs by any Court of law. Documents and books which should bear stamps in accordance with the above rules, and which have not been stamped, or which have been stamped but not "chopped" or signed, will expose the party responsible for the omission to a fine of one hundred times the legal stamp duty. If insufficiently stamped the responsible person will be fined thirty times the deficiency. Stamps will be issued in the following values and colours: 1 cent (pink), 2 c. (green), 10 c. (red), 50 c. (purple), $1 (black).

Stamps once used may not be used again, and anyone convicted of breaking this rule will be fined three hundred times the value of the stamp or stamps so treated. Forgers of duty stamps will be treated according to the criminal code in the same manner as forgers of bank-notes. Documents executed before the enforcement of the stamp duty need not bear stamps, but in the event of their being required as evidence or proof in legal proceedings stamps in accordance with the above scale must be affixed.

G.—REVISION OF THE TARIFF

By the terms of the Mackay Treaty (1902) the duty on imports was to be 5 per cent. *ad valorem*, at a fixed valuation for practically all categories of goods. With the gradual increase in the value of all imported products the duty had ceased to be an effective 5 per cent., and on China's declaration of war against Germany in 1917 the associated Powers agreed to a revision of the customs tariff. It was agreed that the basis should be the average of the values of imports as they appeared upon invoices during the years 1912–1916, and that upon this valuation the 5 per cent. should be charged.

A Tariff Revision Commission met in Shanghai in January, 1918, under the chairmanship of Tseng Shu-chi, with delegates representing China, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, and the United States. In June Tseng Shu-chi was succeeded in the chairmanship by Admiral Tsai Ting-kan.

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CHAPTER XVII

SHIPPING

CHINESE shipping is confined to Far Eastern waters, and in this respect shows no advance on the conditions prevailing in 1516, when the first European ship reached China. In those days Chinese vessels carried the produce of the country to Singapore, where it was transhipped to Arab sailing ships. With the exception of vessels plying to Rangoon the Chinese Mercantile Marine is still not seen west of Singapore. The discovery that China possessed one of the finest harbours in the world in Hongkong was made by the British, for until the occupation of the island in 1840 its waters were little used except by Chinese fishermen. Hongkong shipping statistics date from 1844. In the following year the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Company established regular sailings between Hongkong and England (with transhipment at Suez until 1869).

The first steamship company to be formed in China was the Hongkong, Canton and Macao Steamboat Company (1865), which still serves these ports and the West River. A second British company followed two years later in 1867—the China Navigation Company—with headquarters at Shanghai.

China's premier business enterprise—the only steamship company of any proportions—is the China Merchants Steamship Company, founded in Shanghai in 1872. It began operations with two steamers chartered for the transportation of rice from the Southern provinces. This venture did not prove profitable, and in 1877, with a view of extending its business, the company purchased the fleet of the Shanghai Steam Navigation Co. from Messrs. Russell and Co. It thus gained possession of seventeen vessels and a considerable amount of landed property, wharves, etc., at various ports. The fleet was resold to Messrs. Russell and Co. during the Franco-Chinese War to evade seizure, and repurchased at the conclusion of the war for the same sum. It was run at a loss until the appointment as Director-General of Mr. Sheng Kung-pao in 1885. From that time until 1904 the shareholders received a substantial return upon their investment. From 1904 onwards the company's operations again showed unsatisfactory results, owing, it is alleged, to the dominance of the official directors nominated by the Ministry of Communications. In 1911 Dr. Wu Ting-fang was appointed Managing Director with a view to reorganizing the company's business. On the outbreak of the Revolution a proposal made by the Republican party to raise money on a mortgage of the company's property gave rise to fears that foreigners, who are not allowed to hold shares, would obtain control of the company, and only a small sum was obtained on the security of the business. These fears were revived when fresh capital was called for, in order to carry through a reorganization scheme, and the Government was forced to intervene in the affairs of the company. Negotiations for the sale of the business to a new company were resumed, but were broken off in 1913, and in June of that year the shareholders agreed to a scheme for the reconstitution of the Board of Directors. The company now possesses a fleet of 31 ships of an aggregate of 59,332 tons. A rough estimate places the value of its property at Tls. 25,000,000—Tls. 13,000,000 being represented by land, and Tls. 12,000,000 by steamers. The headquarters of the company have always been in Shanghai, but there are also wharves and various interests of the company at Chungking, Ichang, Hankow, Kiukiang, Chinkiang, Wuhu, Nanking, Ningpo, Wenchow, Amoy, Swatow, Foochow, Canton, Hongkong, Chefoo, Newchwang and Tientsin.

Other purely Chinese shipping companies operate on a much smaller scale. The Ningshao Steamship Company has two steamers of 1300 and 999 tons respectively, which ply between Ningpo and Shanghai, and has now extended its service up the Yangtze to Hankow. Two companies, the Yuen On and the Shiu On, maintain the "Kwong" service between Hongkong and Canton. The Szechuan Steam Navigation Company solved the problem of steam navigation on the Upper Yangtze for commercial purposes by means of the *Shutung*, which plied alone for some years between Ichang and Chungking, with a cargo flat attached. There are now a number of steamers on this run (see p. 11). Numerous services of launches are maintained by Chinese companies in inland waters.

The Kailan Mining Administration owns two steamers, but employs others on a long-time charter. This company, a joint Anglo-Chinese enterprise (see p. 68), took over the shipping interests of the Chinese Engineering and Mining Company, which dated from 1887, when the company was Chinese owned. Its two steamers are of 1605 and 1243 tons respectively. The company owns the ice-free port of Chinwangtao, with anchorage for steamers drawing 22 ft. of water.

The Pacific Trade.—In 1915 the withdrawal of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company from the Pacific—its fleet was sold to the Atlantic Transport Company—led to the formation of a new company to engage in the trans-Pacific passenger and cargo trade. The organisers were mainly Chinese, but the capital, $10,000,000, was to be shared equally between Chinese and American shareholders, and the ships sail under the American flag Look Tin Eli, President of the Canton Bank, San Francisco, is President of the new company. The service was inaugurated on October 30, 1915, by the *China*, a Pacific mail boat purchased from the Atlantic Transport Company. The Pacific Mail Steamship Company has now resumed its sailings to Japan and China.

The shortage of tonnage in the Far East during the war brought into existence a number of shipping schemes, not all of which have as yet materialized. The Java-Pacific Company, a new line managed by the Java-China-Japan Line, started with a monthly service from Batavia via Hongkong and other ports to San Francisco. The Bank Line re-entered the trans-Pacific freight trade in November, 1915, with one boat.

Motor Boats.—There has been a marked extension of motor-boat traffic in South China waterways, especially along the West River and its tributaries in Hongkong's trade field. A motor-boat service has been established as far as Pinglo, 80 miles up the Kueikiang or Cassia River, half-way between Wuchow and Kueilin, Kuangsi province, with an extension up the West River. At Pinglo, it may be noted, traffic reaches a country tapped by headwaters and streams following into the Yangtze River through Hunan. The service between Wuchow and Nanning is maintained with some interruptions all through the year, although at low water the difficulties of navigating the narrows and rapids in the West River are great. In the summer the motor boats do the round trip from Wuchow (340 miles) in about four days, but in winter the single trip up river may take almost as long. During parts of the year a service is run between Wuchow and Lungchow, 90 miles above Nanning. Boats have run to Posé, 150 miles up the Yukiang. Liquid fuel is burnt on the upper reaches of the West River instead of kerosene oil. The boats on the service range up to 60 tons burden. Another service under Inland Steam Navigation Rules plying between Wuchow and Liuchowfu on the Liukiang, a tributary of the Pakho, which runs into the West River at Sünchow, was maintained in 1914 by six large motor boats, four under the British and two under the Chinese flag. Another run contemplated was between Liuchowfu and Changan, 175 miles up the Liukiang, together with a possible extension of the service another 100 miles farther up to Kuyi, which is almost on the borders of Kueichow.

At Tientsin motor-boats are used by the native water police for patrolling the Haīho (Peīho) and by foreign steamship companies. There are also a few privately owned craft.

At Amoy motor craft are used for the journey across the harbour between Kulangsu and Amoy, the boats being for the most part the native sampan fitted with a 14-18 h.p. engine.

The following table gives the number of vessels with their tonnage entered and cleared at Chinese ports for the years 1912–1917, showing the share taken by each country :—

Flag.	1912.		1913.		1914.		1915.		1916.		1917.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
American	1,622	715,001	2,458	898,750	3,133	1,047,422	3,148	804,414	3,082	779,913	3,609	1,125,155
Austro-Hungarian	74	255,713	84	285,802	51	174,233	—	—	—	—	—	—
British	31,909	38,106,732	32,186	38,120,300	32,951	39,266,765	33,339	37,675,657	34,132	35,840,573	34,902	33,576,217
Danish	77	91,786	86	122,722	100	139,526	82	115,628	115	206,734	83	142,238
Dutch	275	387,471	293	401,077	276	398,271	287	496,664	233	463,995	374	712,439
French	1,836	1,634,468	1,020	1,232,763	520	898,644	537	561,955	409	596,237	328	584,891
German	4,778	6,171,684	5,382	6,320,466	3,906	4,026,493	979	58,263	1,151	66,532	233	17,054
Italian	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	57	979	478	14,912
Japanese	20,001	19,913,385	22,716	23,422,487	22,407	23,996,972	20,141	23,873,016	21,598	24,233,835	22,454	24,581,647
Norwegian	1,086	1,121,785	637	739,328	692	771,235	726	774,873	472	636,217	370	474,349
Portuguese	166	13,710	816	128,330	1,748	311,696	784	152,021	440	129,478	456	199,438
Russian	303	465,761	3,265	1,687,756	4,035	1,954,925	4,873	1,922,055	3,790	1,545,085	3,276	1,429,200
Swedish	20	51,594	27	71,065	15	40,985	26	69,450	34	101,948	10	26,692
Non-Treaty Powers	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	1,466	—	—
Chinese Shipping*	107,698	17,277,407	121,768	19,903,944	42,617	18,628,456	43,282	18,655,411	45,552	18,460,533	46,422	18,517,957
„ Junks†					108,140	6,328,590	98.683	5,503,598	90,949	4,936,576	100,478	5,504,860
Total	169,935	86,206,497	190,738	93,334,830	220,591	97,984,213	206,887	90,663,005	202,016	88,020,101	213,473	86,907,049

* Vessels of foreign type, owned by Chinese, and sailing under the Chinese Flag.

† Vessels of Chinese type, built and owned by Chinese, entered and cleared at the Maritime Customs.

PERCENTAGE OF TONNAGE TO EACH FLAG

Flag.	1905.	1906.	1907.	1908.	1909.	1910.	1911.	1912.	1913.	1914.	1915.	1916.	1917.
American	1·78	1·78	1·30	1·19	·93	·82	·83	·83	·96	1·06	0·89	0·91	1·30
Austro-Hungarian	·27	·22	·25	·24	·22	·22	·23	·30	·31	·18	—	—	—
Belgian	—	—	·02	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Brazilian	—	—	—	·01	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
British	48.24	44·12	41·59	40·96	39·21	38·58	40·47	44·20	40·84	40·28	41·55	40·72	38·64
Danish	·10	·23	·14	·09	·16	·12	·17	·11	·13	·14	0·13	0·23	0·16
Dutch	·31	·44	·37	·36	·36	·38	·48	·45	·43	·41	0·55	0·53	0·82
French	2·34	4·12	5·88	6·04	5·67	5·55	3·68	1·90	1·32	·92	0·62	0·68	0·67
German	11·25	9·86	8·29	7·84	8·35	7·95	7·99	7·16	6·77	3·46	0·06	0·08	0·02
Italian	·03	—	—	—	—	·02	—	—	—	—	—	—	·02
Japanese	8·58	15·01	19·47	21·50	21·84	21·29	22·35	23·10	25·10	24·59	26·33	27·53	28·28
Korean	—	·03	—	·06	·03	·04	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Norwegian	4·02	2·13	1·33	1·17	1·56	1·23	1·45	1·30	·79	·77	0·85	0·72	0·55
Portuguese	·20	·24	·14	·03	—	—	·01	·01	·14	·32	0·17	0·15	0·23
Russian	·11	·38	·33	·31	·97	1·62	1·44	·54	1·81	1·95	2.12	1·75	1·64
Swedish	·21	·09	·01	—	·12	·10	·05	·06	·08	·04	0·08	0·12	0·03
Non-Treaty Powers	·01	—	—	·09	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Chinese	22·55	21·35	20·83	20·18	20·58	22·08	20·85	20·04	21·32	25·88	26·65	26·58	27·64
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The Shipping for the years 1902–1914 was divided between Steamers and Sailing Vessels in the following proportions :—

YEAR.	STEAMERS Entered and Cleared.		SAILING VESSELS Entered and Cleared.		TOTAL Entered and Cleared.	
	No.	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*	*No.*	*Tons.*
1902	58,086	52,806,393	11,413	1,183,609	69,499	53,990,002
1903	62,733	55,930,221	14,279	1,360,168	77,012	57,290,389
1904	75,338	57,652,481	148,497	6,122,225	223,835	63,774,706
1905	88,362	66,372,624	135,597	6,382,923	223,959	72,755,547
1906	87,949	70,117,628	120,598	5,702,260	208,547	75,819,888
1907	91,380	74,130,376	126,552	5,979,048	217,932	80,109,424
1908	86,600	77,955,525	121,005	6,035,764	207,605	83,991,289
1909	87,802	80,613,890	120,714	6,157,919	208,516	86,771,809
1910	96,196	82,337,331	123,614	6,439,358	219,810	88,776,689
1911	90,177	80,238,056	104,075	5,691,455	194,252	85,929,511
1912	92,703	82,388,967	90,076	5,173,781	182,779	87,562,748
1913	100,860	87,613,969	89,878	5,720,861	190,738	93,334,830
1914	108,118	91,126,240	112,473	6,857,973	220,591	97,984,213
1915	103,963	84,641,227	102,924	6,021,778	206,887	90,663,005
1916	105,296	82,381,569	95,720	5,638,532	202,016	88,020,101
1917	104,944	80,266,725	108 529	6,640,324	213,473	86,907,049

STEAMSHIP COMPANIES

The following steamship companies ply to and from Chinese waters :—

I. Mail Steamers

1. Peninsular and Oriental Steam Navigation Co. (P. and O.). British. London to China and Japan. Fortnightly, with Intermediate Service, fortnightly.
2. Canadian Pacific Railway Co. (C.P.R.). British. Vancouver to Hongkong. Monthly, with one Intermediate steamer.
3. Nord-Deutscher Lloyd (N.D.L.). German. Bremen to China and Japan. Fortnightly. *Abandoned during the war.*
4. Messageries Maritimes (M.M.). French. Marseilles to China and Japan. Fortnightly.
5. Nippon Yusen Kabushiki Kaisha (N.Y.K.). Japanese. Japan to China and Europe, to America and to Australia.
6. Toyo Kisen Kabushiki Kaisha (T.K.K.). Japanese. San Francisco to Japan and China. Weekly.
7 Osaka Shosen Kaisha (O.S.K.). Japanese. Japan to Bombay (fortnightly) in connection with the Bombay-Marseilles and Bombay-Genoa (monthly) services.
8. Pacific Mail Steamship Co. (P.M.S.). American. San Francisco to Japan and China.

Note.—The mails to and from China, "via Siberia," are carried between Dairen and Shanghai by steamers of the South Manchuria Railway Co., and between Vladivostok and Shanghai by steamers of the Russian Volunteer Fleet. (Service suspended during the war.)

II. Register and "Conference" Lines

(*The flags sailed under are given in brackets.*)

1. Austrian-Lloyd Navigation Co. (Austro-Hungarian).
2. Barber and Co. (British).
3. Ben Line (British).
4. British India S.N. Co. (British)—Apcar Line.
5. Chargeurs Réunis (French).
6. China Mutual S.N. Co. (British).
7. Eastern and Australian Steamship Co. (British).
8. Robert Dollar and Co. (British).
9. Gellatly, Hankey and Co. (British)—Mogul Line.
10. Glen Line (British).
11. Great Northern S.S. Co. (American).
12. Hamburg-Amerika Line (German).
13. A. Holt and Co. (British)—Blue Funnel Line.
14. Navigazione Generale Italiana (Italian).
15. Portland and Asiatic Steamship Co. (American).
16. Shire Line (British)—Royal Mail Steam Packet Co.
17. John Warrack and Co. (British).
18. Java-Pacific Co. (Dutch).

III. Occasional Sailings

1. American Asiatic Steamship Co. (American).
2. American and Oriental Line (American).
3. Anglo-American Oil Co. (British).
4. Anglo-Saxon Petroleum Co. (Dutch).
5. Asiatic Steam Navigation Co. (British).
6. Banan Steamship Co. (British).
7. Bank Line (British).
8. Charles Barrie and Son (British).
9. C. T. Bowring and Co. (British).
10. T. and J. Brocklebank (British).
11. Axel Broström (Swedish).
12. Bruusgaard, Kiosterud and Co. (Norwegian).
13. Bucknall Steamship Line (British).
14. Bullard, King and Co. (British).
15. Burrell and Son (British)—Bank Line.
16. James Chambers and Co. (British).
17. J. Christensen (Norwegian).
18. Clyde Shipping Co. (British).
19. John Cory and Sons (British).
20. Deutsch-Amerikanische Petroleum Gesellschaft (German).
21. East Asiatic Co. (Danish).
22. Eastern and Australian Steamship Co. (British).
23. Gow, Harrison and Co. (British).
24. Greenshields, Cowie and Co. (British).
25. Hansa-German Steamship Line (German).
26. Hugh Hogarth and Sons (British).
27. Indra Line (British).
28. M. Jebsen (German).
29. Hans Kiaer and Co. (Norwegian).
30. A. F. Klaveness and Co. (Norwegian).
31. James Little and Co. (British).
32. J. Mathias and Sons (British).
33. F. S. Miller (British).
34. Norwegian Steamship Owners' Co-operative Association (Norwegian).
35. Soc. An. Nazionale di Servizi Maritimi (Italian).
36. Northern Steamship Co. (Russian).
37. Occidental and Oriental S. Co. (British).
38. Ocean Steamship Co. (British).
39. Park Steamship Co. (British).
40. Prince Line (British).
41. Purdie, Glen and Miller (British).
42. Rankin, Gilmour and Co. (British).
43. Rickmers Reismühlen Rhederei u. Schiffbau A.G. (German).
44. T. B. Royden (British)—Indra Line.
45. Russian East Asiatic Steamship Co. (Russian).
46. Association of Scandinavian Shipowners (Norwegian).

47. Sivewright, Bacon and Co. (British).
48. Swedish East Asiatic Co. (Swedish).
49. Compañia Maritima "Unión" (Spanish).
50. Andrew Weir and Co. (British).
51. W. Wilhelmsen (Norwegian).
52. O. and W. Williams and Co. (British).
53. J. F. Wilson and Co. (British).
54. Wright, Graham and Co. (British).

The following steamship companies operate mainly or exclusively in Far Eastern waters:—

1. China Merchants Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese).
2. China Navigation Co. (British).
3. China and Manila Steamship Co. (British).
4. China-Siam Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese).
5. Chinese Engineering and Mining Co. (British).
6. Compagnie Asiatique de Navigation (French).
7. Douglas Steamship Co. (British).
8. (Hamburg-Amerika Line.) Shanghai-Tientsin, Wuhu, Canton and Yangtze services. *Abandoned during the war.*
9. Harada Steamship Co. (Japanese).
10. Hongkong, Canton and Macao Steamboat Co. (British).
11. Hoong On Steamship Co. (British).
12. Indo-China Steam Navigation Co. (British).
13. Java-China-Japan Line (Dutch).
14. Kwong Line (Chinese).
15. Messageries Cantonaises (French).
16. Mitsui Bussan Kaisha (Japanese).
17. Ningshao Steam Navigation Co. (Chinese).
18. Nisshin Kisen Kaisha (Japanese).
19. Philippines Steamship Co. (American).
20. Russian Volunteer Fleet (Russian).
21. South Manchuria Railway Co. (Japanese).
22. Straits Steamship Co.
23. Taito Steam Navigation Co. (Japanese).

INLAND WATERS

The following table of registered vessels plying under steam on the inland waters of China is taken from the returns of the Maritime Customs :—

Port.	1913.		1914.		1915.		1916.		1917.	
	Foreign	Chinese	Foreign	Chinese	Foreign	Chinese	Foreign	Chinese	Foreign	Chinese
Antung .	7	1	9	1	8	3	6	4	6	4
Dairen . .	2	—	4	1	6	—	3	—	1	—
Newchwang .	—	1	1	3	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tientsin .	15	4	17	12	11	13	9	11	9	12
Lungkow .	—	—	—	—	7	8	13	11	22	18
Chefoo . .	—	6	—	5	1	5	—	5	1	4
Kiaochou .	1	—	—	—	3	0	2	—	3	—
Chungking .	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	1	1	1
Shasi . .	—	6	—	6	—	7	1	6	1	5
Changsha .	10	28	10	52	12	52	13	54	16	62
Hankow .	35	37	35	82	45	127	52	148	54	156
Kiukiang .	3	21	1	38	7	37	7	37	4	30
Wuhu . .	3	14	4	16	5	24	9	25	14	18
Nanking .	—	5	1	9	2	8	4	8	4	7
Chinkiang .	7	37	10	43	14	34	18	42	13	37
Shanghai .	56	245	58	278	48	267	79	271	74	266
Soochow .	10	5	10	5	11	5	8	5	8	5
Ningpo .	—	26	—	31	—	32	—	31	—	28
Wenchow .	—	7	—	8	—	9	—	7	—	6
Foochow .	9	14	8	17	9	18	12	19	11	19
Amoy . .	15	19	16	21	15	23	12	20	6	18
Swatow .	6	19	5	23	7	27	12	30	10	38
Canton .	9	423	9	451	11	461	14	476	16	496
Kongmoon .	1	—	3	—	4	—	7	—	8	—
Samshui .	1	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Wuchow .	1	12	6	14	7	18	6	12	9	16
Nanning .	3	3	4	7	—	5	2	11	1	12
Kiungchow .	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Pakhoi .	—	1	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	—
TOTALS .	1130		1336		1417		1523		1550	

CHAPTER XVIII

LAND

IN theory all land in China belonged to the Emperor, whose rights were recognized by the payment of an annual land tax. Under the Republic the theory survives, land being the property of the Government.

The tax paid under the Empire was based upon the rental value of the land in 1713, a Decree of that year having fixed the assessment of that year as the basis of land taxation for all time, no increase being permitted in any circumstances. This is still the theoretical basis for land taxation at the present day, but various additions increase the actual taxes paid by the landowners by over 100 per cent. These irregular additions, illegal, but established by long custom, generally include a fee of 40 to 50 per cent as meltage or inferior touch charges, and an addition of 25 to 30 per cent on the original tax for collection expenses. There is a further tax upon land in the form of a grain tax. In some provinces this is paid in kind, but in the majority of cases it is commuted into a cash payment. In the former case the cost of transport to Peking is also charged to the taxpayer; in the latter an arbitrary and very high value is placed upon the grain, which, with "official accretions," brings the actual payment up to about five times the legal tariff. The estimated receipts from the land tax for 1915 amounted to Tls. 65,171,216, but the actual amount collected from this source is estimated by good authorities at between Tls. 375,000,000 and 400,000,000 a year.

The Hsien[1] of each district is responsible for the registration of ownership and transfers of land, and the assessment and collection of taxes. His seal (in red) is supposed to be placed upon all valid deeds and titles to property. But the expense of procuring official recognition of deeds being prohibitive, transfers are usually effected by unsealed or "white deeds," twenty or thirty of which are not infrequently attached to the original official title-deed, i.e. the "Red Deed." The official registers, therefore, afford no reliable information as to the ownership of property. Actual possession and the production of three successive years' land tax receipts are regarded as *prima facie* proof of ownership.

The succession to property, both real and personal, is in the male line. When there is no direct heir, a son may be adopted by the owner of the property or, after his death, by a family council. In each case the succession is recognized as legitimate. In families where there are more than one son, the property is equally divided among all the male heirs, who arrive at a suitable distribution of the estate of their own accord, if the partition has not been made during the father's lifetime. In these cases adopted sons, as well as the sons of a concubine, share equally with the sons of the first wife. A female can only inherit when there is no male, either natural or adopted. Peasant owners, it is estimated, occupy about one-half of the land at present under cultivation in China, which was estimated, by Mr. George Jamieson, C.M.G., in 1905 to amount to 650,000 square miles, or roughly 400,000,000 acres.

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[1] This paragraph describes the condition of affairs under the Empire.

Foreigners, with the exception of missionaries, are only able to own land in the Treaty Ports and concessions, and occasionally, by mutual arrangement, in their vicinity. Exceptions to this rule are special mining and railway concessions. Catholic missionaries have claimed the right to "lease and buy land and build houses in any of the provinces" by virtue of a clause appearing in the Chinese text of the French Treaty of 1860. It was not until the American Commercial Treaty of 1903 was signed that Protestant Missions were definitely given the right to "rent and to lease in perpetuity buildings or lands in all parts of the Empire."

Under the Republic special efforts have been made to increase the returns from the Land Tax, which was estimated to produce $95,000,000 in 1916. New regulations for the registration of title-deeds were promulgated in 1914, and are stated to have brought in $31,000,000 to the Exchequer for the first year.

Cultivated Land

The amount of cultivated land in China has been approximately estimated at 2,046,982,000 mow (=341,163,500 acres), distributed as follows (1 mow = $\frac{1}{6}$ acre):—

Province.	Mow.	Province.	Mow.
Anhui	74,810,000	Kuangtung	129,970,000
Chekiang	56,670,000	Kueichow	64,776,000
Chihli	135,800,000	Manchuria	241,805,000
Fukien	66,320,000	Shansi	101,830,000
Honan	87,940,000	Shantung	75,970,000
Hunan	103,380,000	Shensi	95,270,000
Hupeh	91,410,000	Sinkiang	81,120,000
Kansu	96,966,000	Szechuan	165,653,000
Kiangsi	89,480,000	Yunnan	127,746,000
Kiangsu	58,600,000		
Kuangsi	71,466,000	Total	2,046,982,000

CHAPTER XIX

EDUCATION

THE system of education promulgated by the Manchu Government was fully described in the 1912 issue of this Year Book, and tables were given showing the extent to which the scheme had been realized. The Revolution of 1911–12 completely disorganized the entire system. All Chinese universities and colleges closed their doors, partly on account of lack of funds wherewith to continue ; but mainly because the disturbances throughout the country led the students to throw up their studies and leave for their homes. With the great majority of the schools it was the same. If they were not compelled to close by the desertion of their pupils, they were only able to continue their work for so long as funds lasted. Consequently, in education, as in many other fields, the Republican Government had to start completely anew. Schools reopened as conditions became settled, and, thanks to the enthusiasm with which educational affairs were taken up under the new régime, the ground lost during the Revolution was quickly recovered. China's educational problem, however, turns mainly on the question of finance and the supply of teachers. To make education universal in the country it is estimated that a million primary schools would be required in the place of the 50,000 at present existing, with a staff of from one and a half to two million teachers. A Presidential Mandate of February, 1916, called attention to the need for teachers, and authorised the Ministry of Education to arrange for students to be sent from the provinces to the chief normal school at Peking. Students were to be selected by the Civil Governor, 20 each from the large provinces, 12 from the smallest, and 16 from the remainder.

Educational Statistics

According to a report of the Ministry of Education China in 1915 had 11 Universities,[1] 21 Colleges, 7 Technical Schools, 3 Medical Colleges, 415 Normal Schools, 502 Middle Schools, 50,071 Primary Schools, 965 Half-day Schools, 85 Military Medical Schools, 298 Girls' Schools, 82 Industrial Schools, 49 Law Schools, and 72 schools established by foreigners.

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[1] Chinese Universities at Peking, Tientsin, Taiyuan, Anking, Sianfu, Chengtu, Nanking, Canton, Wuchang.

A later return gives the following statistics :—

Total number of Schools	86,799
,, ,, ,, Students	2,905,152
,, ,, ,, Graduates	167,881
Executive Officers of Schools	98,215
Teachers	127,706
Male Students	2,764,004
Girl ,,	141,148
Government-established Schools	61,859
Private Schools	24,541
Annual Income of all Educational Institutions	$29,168,113
,, Expenditure	$29,184,537
Cost of Maintenance	$82,617,134

Administration

Educational affairs are in the hands of the Ministry of Education (Chiao Yu Pu), at the head of which is the Minister of Education. The latter has the assistance of sixteen inspectors, appointed by the President on the nomination of the Minister, and ten experts in art and science appointed by the Minister himself. The work of the Ministry[1] is carried on by one General Council and three Bureaux. The General Council has special charge of all matters relating to schools under the direct control of the Ministry, teachers in public schools, educational associations, investigations and compilations, school hygiene, organization, and maintenance of school libraries, school museums, and educational exhibits. The three Bureaux are the following: (1) Bureau of General Education; (2) Bureau of Technical or Professional Education; and (3) Bureau of Social Education. The Bureau of General Education has charge of all matters relating to normal schools, middle schools, primary schools, kindergartens, and schools for defectives, including the deaf and the blind. It deals also with matters relating to school attendance, and the selection and certification of teachers. The Bureau of Technical or Professional Education has charge of all affairs relating to universities and colleges, higher technical schools, the sending of students abroad, the national observatory, and the preparation of the State almanac. It deals also with matters relating to societies of arts and sciences and the conferring of degrees. The Bureau of Social Education is in charge of all affairs relating to the regulation of public ceremonies, to museums, music, literature, and the stage, the investigation and collection of relics, popular education, public libraries and the compilation, the investigation, and the planning of popular education.

For the purposes of national inspection of education the country is divided into eight inspectorial divisions, each with two inspectors of general and social education. The system of provincial and local education is in a transitional stage. Most Provincial Administrations have a

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[1] cp. *The Chinese System of Public Education*, by Ping Wen Kuo, Ph.D., to which the reader is referred for a comprehensive history of Chinese education.

Department of Education, the head of which is appointed by the President. The department has a number of provincial inspectors appointed by the Governor of the province. In the various districts are bureaux of education (Hseüh Wu K'u) under a chief appointed by the magistrate of the district, while in smaller localities educational affairs are in the hands of certain of the local gentry selected by the people.

In discussing the reorganization of education under the Republic Dr. P. W. Kuo[1] states that the changes made in the curricula[2] of the various kinds of schools have been along three general lines: the elimination of Chinese classics as a subject in itself, the introduction of new subjects of study having a social and industrial significance, and the relief of the overcrowded programme.

School Fees were the subject of Educational Ordinance, No. 15, 1913.[3] According to the standard set up by the Ministry of Education, the lower primary school should be free, but under special circumstances a monthly fee of 30 cents (7d.) or less is permitted. The fee charged by higher primary schools should not exceed 1 dollar (2s. approximately) a month, and that for supplementary courses should not exceed 60 cents a month. The fee of the elementary industrial school[4] should never be higher than 60 cents per month. The monthly fee of the middle school ranges from 1 to 2 dollars, and that of higher industrial schools from 80 cents to 1 dollar and 50 cents. Professional schools charge a fee of from 2 to 2½ dollars a month. Tuition at a university is 3 dollars a month. Normal and higher normal schools exempt students from paying any tuition fee, but at the time of admission a deposit of 10 dollars or less is collected, to be returned at the time of graduation.

The Educational System

The main principles intended to govern education in China were formulated at the National Educational Conference held in Peking in July–August, 1912, under the auspices of the Ministry of Education. The Minister invited ninety-six delegates, all of whom were graduates of Normal Colleges in China or abroad, were teachers of three years' standing, or were educators of some renown. Of these ninety-six, forty-four were deputed from the provinces, including Mongolia and Tibet, one represented Chinese residing abroad, fifteen came from colleges under the direct control of the Ministry of Education, ten were delegated by the Ministries of Interior, Finance, Agriculture and Forestry, Commerce and Industry, War and the Navy, and the remainder were specially invited by the Minister. The Conference opened at the Ministry of Education on July 12, and was formally closed on August 11. Mr. Wang Shao-lien was chairman. While in session the Conference discussed upwards of forty-three Bills upon various matters connected with education, submitted by the Ministry, of which twenty-three were approved in their original or a modified form. The Conference was summoned in an advisory capacity only, and it was left to the Government or Parliament to give effect to its recommendations. As the recommendations made by the Conference are forming the basis of China's future educational system, a summary of them is appended.

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[1] *The Chinese System of Public Education*, p. 131.

[2] See *infra*.

[3] *The Chinese System of Public Education*, p 133.

[4] Industrial schools include schools of agriculture, trades and commerce, industrial continuation schools, and the like.

The course of education recommended was as follows :—

Primary Schools (compulsory). Four years' course for children of seven to ten years of age.

Higher Primary Schools. Three years' course for children of eleven to thirteen years of age.

Middle Schools. Four years' course for children of fourteen to seventeen years of age.

Preparatory Schools for Colleges. Three years' course for students of eighteen to twenty years of age.

Colleges and Professional Institutions. Three years' course for students of twenty-one to twenty-four years of age.

The Conference also recommended that there should be special schools of a similar grade to the Higher Primary Schools for the instruction of backward scholars, and Industrial Schools for the teaching of agriculture, commerce, and handicrafts.

Primary Schools.—As it is proposed to make attendance at Primary Schools compulsory, it may not be out of place to put on record the main provisions of the Bill approved by the Conference :—

1. The object of primary education is the development of the child, physically and mentally. It involves moral education, teaching of the citizen's duties, and necessary knowledge and training.

2. Primary education is undertaken by Primary Schools and Higher Primary Schools. Those established by public funds will be named after the places where they are located, while those established by individual funds may be named with whatever name the concerned may choose.

3. In regard to kindergartens, schools for the deaf and dumb and other free schools, an ordinance will be promulgated by the Minister of Education.

4. Every city, town, and village is required to establish Primary Schools in proportion to the number of children.

5. The magistrate shall direct cities, towns, and villages to establish schools.

6. For financial reasons, two or more villages may jointly establish common schools under the supervision of the magistrate.

7. In such cases, joint bodies will look after the educational affairs in the respective groups of villages.

8. The magistrate shall, as the case demands, (1) order Village A and Village B to establish joint societies to promote primary education ; (2) empower Village A to supervise educational affairs in Village B, or vice versa.

9. The number and position of schools in the cities, towns, and villages shall be decided by the magistrate, with the assistance of the joint societies.

10. The magistrate may cause joint societies to be organized or abolished, in accordance with the opinion of the local people concerned.

11. The magistrate may divide cities or towns into convenient portions, and assign each the shares to finance the schools.

12. According to Articles 6, 8, 49, and 50, the magistrate shall exempt poor villages from establishing schools and bearing educational responsibilities.

13. In special circumstances the magistrate may delay the establishment of certain schools, and recommend the use of private ones.

14. Higher Primary Schools shall be established by cities. But towns and villages may establish them, provided they have funds besides the necessary amount to support the Primary Schools.

15. Private Primary Schools shall be established with the sanction of the magistrate. Their abolition shall be reported to him, too.

16. Articles 14 and 15 shall apply to kindergartens, schools for the deaf and dumb, and other free schools.

17. The course of the Primary School is four years, and that of the Higher Primary School three years.

18. The curriculum of the Primary School shall contain simple ethics, Chinese language, arithmetic, manual training, drawing, singing, and physical drill, and sewing for girls. In case of necessity, drawing, manual training, or singing may be temporarily omitted.

19. The curriculum of the Higher Primary School shall contain ethics, Chinese language, arithmetic, Chinese history, geography, science, manual training, drawing, singing, drill, and agriculture for boys, and sewing for girls. For local reasons, commerce may take the place of agriculture, and the English language may be added. In case of necessity, manual training or singing may be omitted. English will be an optional course, and may have its place taken by another foreign language.

20. In Primary and Higher Primary Schools special courses may be provided for backward pupils. Regulations regarding these courses will be promulgated by the Minister of Education.

21. For physical reasons, pupils may be exempt from taking certain required studies.

22. In Primary and Higher Primary Schools, the addition and omission of studies from the curriculum will be allowed only with the joint permission of the magistrate and the local education society concerned.

23. All text books used in these schools must have been recommended by the Provincial Text Books Censorate.

24. The vacations of the Primary or Higher Primary Schools shall not be over ninety days a year, not counting Sundays.

25. Regulations for these schools shall be promulgated by the Minister of Education.

26. These schools shall be provided with houses, furniture, drill grounds, gardens, and sometimes experimental farms.

27. The property of these schools can be occupied by others only for educational purposes.

28. Regulations regarding the equipment of schools shall be promulgated by the Minister of Education in co-operation with the magistrate.

There are seven articles regarding school attendance, and twelve regarding the requirements for teachers, eight regarding school funds, and seven regarding school management.

Normal Schools.—The Conference adopted the proposal to establish two grades of Normal Schools, the lower grade (corresponding with the Middle Schools) to furnish a five years' course, including one year's preparatory course ; the upper grade (ranking with colleges) to furnish a four years' course.

Government Control

The Conference favoured the proposal that all schools above the grade of Middle Schools should be under the direct control of the Ministry of Education, although provided for by local contributions.

School Calendar.—The school year is to be from August 1 to July 31, divided into three terms. A summer vacation of from thirty to fifty days, varying according to climatic conditions, is to be allowed in all schools, but this vacation may be extended by not more than thirty days in the case of all educational institutions above the grade of Middle Schools.

A vacation of seven to fourteen days is to be allowed at the New Year, and a Spring Vacation of seven days starting from the 1st of April. In cold climates the schools may grant a longer vacation in the winter by proportionately shortening the summer holidays. Holidays are also to be given on National Memorial days and Sundays.

Professional Schools.—Professional schools are to be established at which there will be courses in medicine, pharmacy, fine arts, music, foreign languages, technology, etc., with separate schools of medical science, fine arts and music for girls, though the Conference favoured the permission of co-education for male and female students in certain circumstances.

Universities.—The Conference recommended the immediate establishment of four Government Universities, grouping the provinces round four distinct centres. The proposed scheme is as follows :—

Chihli, Shantung, Shansi, Honan, and Mongolia.—University at Peking.

Kiangsu, Anhui, Chekiang, and Kiangsi.—University at Nanking.

Kuangtung, Kuangsi, Fukien, Yunnan, Kueichow.—University at Canton.

Hupeh, Hunan, Szechuan, Shensi, and Kansu.—University at Wuchang.

At these Universities the courses to be given include: literature, science, law, commerce, medicine, and agriculture and industry.

Alphabet.—The Conference recommended the appointment of scholars versed in phonetics, and representative of all the provinces, to invent or adopt an alphabet for the Chinese language.

An alphabet was subsequently invented and was subjected to trial in a training college in Peking. It was officially adopted by an Order of the Ministry of Education issued on November 23, 1918. The Order was as follows[1] :—

Order No. 75.

We find that the proposal for the unification of our national language already received sanction at the Central (Educational) Conference held under the auspices of the Ministry of Education in the former Ching Dynasty. Since the inauguration of the Republic, this Ministry has fully recognized that in order to unify our national language, we must necessarily begin by unifying our phonetics. Therefore a Phonetic Unification Conference was specially held in the first year (1912) for the purpose of discussing this subject. The members of that Conference have discussed and adopted a phonetic system containing 39 symbols (divided into 3 denominations, viz. 24 initials, 3 medials, and 12 finals—Tr.) to take the place of our present system of *fants'i* (a sort of spelling, also based on phonetic principles, devised to give the approximately right reading of a Chinese character by means of two other Chinese characters, one representing the consonant and one the vowel, which should be pronounced rapidly and in one breath—Tr.). They have also decided by a majority the proper pronunciation of the commonly used characters. They then requested this Ministry to devise methods for the universal adoption of this system, as on record.

In the fourth year (1915) schools to teach (the use of) the phonetic symbols were established as an experiment, and this system has developed and spread very extensively during the three years following its inception. In this year, the principals of the high normal schools of pedagogy of the whole country have held a conference at which it was resolved to establish in all such high schools a special course for the teaching of the phonetic symbols and the national language with the object of training teachers of our national language. The resolution in question has been submitted to this Ministry, and copies of it have been sent to all the high normal schools with an order that it (the resolution) be carried.

However, it is apprehended that these symbols, not having been officially promulgated by this Ministry, may undergo some slight alteration in the course of their extensive adoption, which would prejudice our whole aim at unification. Therefore the 39 symbols are hereby formally published, in order to facilitate their adoption in all our provinces and territories. Should there be found any amendment really desirable, let this be deliberated at a future conference in order that the system may be perfected.

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[1] Translation in the *North China Daily News.*

National Anthem.—The Ministry of Education was requested to appoint a Committee to decide upon a National anthem.

Worship of Confucius.—The Conference was almost evenly divided upon the subject of the retention or abolition of the worship of Confucius, and the manner of observing the birthday of the Sage. It virtually agreed to abolish Confucian worship, but in regard to the celebration of the birthday of Confucius the Conference reached a compromise, recommending merely that this festival, and other national holidays, be commemorated in all schools by fitting ceremonies.

The Central Educational Conference.—The terms of the Bill recommended for the organization of the Central Educational Conference are as follows :—

(1) The object of the Central Educational Conference is to promote education in the country and to render assistance to educational authorities. (2) The Conference shall look after the interests of schools in the whole country, the welfare of the educational societies, the censoring of text books and matters submitted by the Minister of Education. (3) The Conference may make proposals to the different Ministries regarding educational questions. (4) The Minister of Education shall be the President, and the Vice-Minister of Education the Vice-President of the Conference. In the absence of both, the Conference may elect a President *pro tem.* among the members. (5) The Conference shall be composed of a representative from each Ministry ; one from the authorities of each province, Mongolia and Tibet ; one from each high institution under the direct control of the Ministry of Education ; one from each national library ; one from each national museum ; two from the State schools in each province, Mongolia and Tibet ; one from the educational association in each province, Mongolia and Tibet ; one representing the Chinese residents of America, one of Japan, and two of the Straits Settlements ; and twenty noted educators at the invitation of the Minister of Education.

It was also recommended that a system of Local Educational Conferences, to meet twice annually, should be brought into being, and that Educational Societies for each province should be established in the provincial capitals, with branch societies in each district, town and village. Each such society should be registered with the Ministry of Education, and its duties should be the study and discussion of educational problems and the promotion of education.

ORDERS ISSUED BY THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

SEPTEMBER 5, 1912.

I. Disciplinary Regulations

A. *Educational Aim*

The educational aim of the Republic of China is to pay special attention to the development of morals, supplementing it with technical and military training, and completing it with a cultivation of the æsthetic powers.

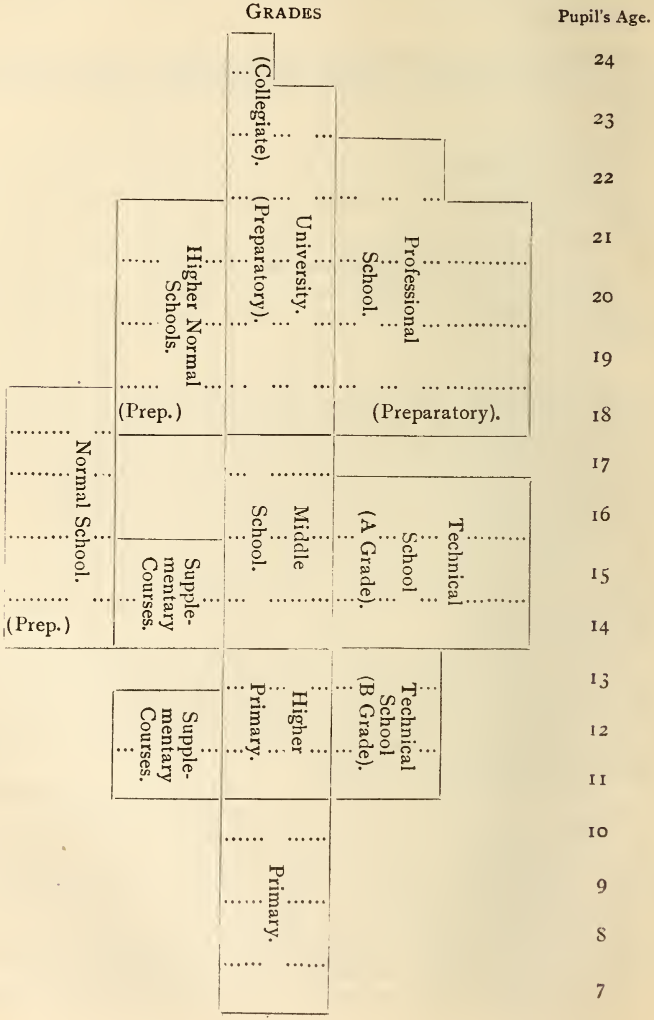
B. *School Discipline*

1. This order contains principles on which school discipline should be based.
2. The rules of discipline, which are intended for the building up of character, should be strictly observed by all students.
3. All principals, schoolmasters, and proctors have educational responsibilities, and their precepts and advice should be respected by the students.
4. All principals should, in accordance with the nature and the peculiar circumstances of their own school, draw up a number of rules to maintain discipline. The rules for class-rooms, preparation-rooms, drill-grounds, dining-rooms, dormitories, and other matters of discipline should be carefully and separately stipulated. The rules for the Government schools should first receive the sanction of the Minister of Education, while those for private schools and schools maintained by local funds should be submitted to the local governmental authority.
5. Students, during their leisure hours, may be permitted to organize associations of athletics, of physical training, of music, and of other useful and literary purposes. These associations, however, should receive the approval of the principal, and be under the direction of the officials of the school.
6. When students have some really valuable suggestions concerning the methods of teaching, discipline, or any other matters in the school, they may submit them to the principal and the faculty either in writing or in person, and they should leave them free to act. The students should not be obstinate, nor should they find any pretext to impede the educational progress of the school.
7. When a student's conduct is in violation of any of the rules of discipline, the principal should inflict due punishment on him.
8. When a student has, on account of serious breach of discipline, been discharged from school, and if he shows no real evidence of repentance and of eager desire to reform, and has no reliable guardian, he will not be allowed to re-enter any other school.
9. This order is applicable to all kinds of school with the exception of elementary schools, whose principals should rewrite the same in simple written style, and explain the same orally to the students.
10. This order shall take effect on the day when it is promulgated.

SEPTEMBER 6, 1912.

The Educational System

The following chart embodies the system of education that has received the sanction of the Ministry of Education :—


GRADES
Pupil's Age.
24
23
22
21
20
19
18
17
16
15
14
13
12
11
10
9
8
7
(Collegiate).
(Preparatory).
University.
Professional School.
(Preparatory).
Higher Normal Schools.
(Prep.)
Normal School.
(Prep.)
Supplementary Courses.
Middle School.
Technical School (A Grade).
Supplementary Courses.
Higher Primary.
Technical School (B Grade).
Primary.

The period of four years in the Primary School should be one of compulsory education. After completing the course therein, the pupils may enter a Higher Primary or a Technical School of B Grade.

When a pupil has completed the three-year course in a Higher Primary, he may enter either a Middle School, or a Normal School, or a Technical School of A Grade.

Supplementary courses are provided for the graduates of the Primary and the Higher Primary to qualify them for entrance either into schools of a higher grade or into some special trade. Two years are needed to complete these courses.

After graduation from a Middle School, a pupil is qualified to enter either the Preparatory Department of a University, of a Professional School, or of a Higher Normal School.

The Preparatory Department of a University covers a period of three years, and the Collegiate Department three or four years (as the subject may be).

The Normal School requires one year's preparatory work, and itself has a four-year course. The Higher Normal School also requires one year's preparatory work, and itself has a three-year course.

Technical Schools are of two grades, A and B, and each has a three-year course.

The Professional School requires one year's preparatory work, and has a three or four year course (as the subject may be).

The age scale on the right serves merely as a standard, and should not be taken as fixed years of age when the pupils necessarily enter into each grade of schools.

The length of the course of studies may be extended or shortened according to the nature and locality of the school. This is explained in greater detail in the orders and rules for different schools.

The School Calendar

1. Each school year begins on the 1st of August, and terminates on the 31st of July of the following year. These dates may be altered for the following reasons :—

    (*a*) Special local circumstances.
    (*b*) Ministry orders.
    (*c*) Special circumstances in the school sanctioned by the Minister of Education.

2. Each school year is divided into three terms :—

    (*a*) First term—January 1 to March 31 inclusive.
    (*b*) Second term—April 1 to July 31 inclusive.
    (*c*) Third term—August 1 to December 31 inclusive.

3. Summer vacation covers a period of thirty to fifty days. The dates to begin and to terminate are to be settled by each headmaster according to local temperature and circumstance. All professional schools and universities may extend the summer vacation for another twenty or thirty days.

New Year vacation covers a period of seven to fourteen days.

Seven Spring holidays beginning on April 1 may be given.

Primary Schools in the country may, according to local custom, shorten the number of days of New Year and Summer or Spring vacations, give a few holidays during the wheat and the autumn harvests. When a school is in session in vacation time, the number of recitation hours should be slightly reduced. Schools situated in severely cold climates may shorten the period of New Year, Spring, and Summer vacations, and close for a Winter vacation.

4. There will be no recitations on memorial days and Sundays. Some of the memorial days are, for instance, memorial days of our Republic, of any special local interest, or of some special interest of each school, birthday of Confucius, etc.

5. This order will take effect when it is duly promulgated.

General Policy of the Ministry of Education

The following statement of the general policy of the Ministry was supplied to the *China Year Book* in 1913:—

1. The aim of general education must be to train students in such a manner as to fit them for present conditions, and render them good citizens of the Republic; for special education, teaching of the highest standard must be provided.

2. *Plan of Education*

(*a*) General education shall comprise:

1. Schools for teaching general knowledge, such as Middle Schools, Higher Primary Schools, and schools of lower grades, for the training of those who will pursue industrial occupations.
2. Social training in general knowledge by means of lectures, etc.
3. Special training for the blind, the dumb, and the afflicted.

(*b*) Special education shall comprise:

1. Universities, Colleges, and Colleges for training in special branches of knowledge.
2. Sending of students abroad.

3. Social training of a special nature by means of lectures, etc.

3. The control of education by the Central Government must be defined:

(*a*) The Ministry should exercise direct control over all branches of special education.

(*b*) For general education the Ministry will prepare schemes to be carried out by the local educational organizations, but will send inspectors to supervise the methods adopted.

(*c*) Private Schools shall be promoted and protected by the Ministry.

4. *Funds for Education*

(*a*) Funds for special educational institutions shall be provided by the Central Government, or by utilizing Government property as capital.

(*b*) Funds for general education shall be supplied by local taxation, or by utilizing local common property as capital.

5. *Educational Policy in the Peking District*

(*a*) The Peking Educational Bureau shall have control over general education in the district, and the expenditure upon this organization, and the schools and colleges under it, shall be temporarily borne by the Ministry of Education.

(*b*) High Schools and Colleges having similar courses of studies shall be amalgamated in order to economize expenditure and increase the number of students.

(*c*) The Ministry will endeavour to develop and reform the University and the Public Library.

6. *Policy in Regard to Students Abroad*

As higher education is to be controlled by the Ministry direct, arrangements in regard to the sending of students abroad shall be in the hands of the Central Government. Students sent abroad shall have qualifications which will enable them to enter a College, or a special educational institution, or shall have completed a course, and be duly qualified, in a College or special educational institution in China.

7. *Education of Mongolians, Tibetans, and Mohammedans*

As the five races have been combined into one nation, each must receive an equivalent training, except the Manchus, who have become accustomed to the written and spoken Chinese language, and do not require special treatment. For the Outer Mongolian, Tibetan, and

Mohammedan tribes, which continue to use their respective dialects special educational methods will be adopted, in order to train them for the union of the five races.

Foreign Colleges in China

Anglo-Chinese College, Amoy. *President:* H. F. Rankin, F.E.I.S.

Anglo-Chinese College, Foochow. *President:* J. Gowdy, B.A., B.D.

Anglo-Chinese College, Hokling. *President:* J. Gowdy, D.D.

Anglo-Chinese College, Shanghai. *President:* J. Whiteside.

Anglo-Chinese College, Swatow. *President:* H. F. Wallace, M.A., B.D.

Anglo-Chinese College, Tientsin. *President:* J. B. Tayler, B.SC.

Ashmore Theological Seminary, Swatow. *President:* W. Ashmore, D.D.

Boone University, Wuchang. *President:* Jas. Jackson, D.D.

Canton Christian College. *President:* C. K. Edmunds, PH.D.

English Methodist College, Ningpo. *President:* H. S. Redfern, M.A.

Foochow College. *President:* L. B. Peet, M.A.

Foochow Girls' College. *President:* Miss E. M. Garretson.

Griffith John College, Hankow. *President:* A. J. McFarlane, B.A.

Hangchow College. *President:* J. H. Judson, B.A.

Harvard Medical School, Shanghai. *Dean:* Dr. H. S. Houghton.

Hongkong University. *President:* Sir Charles N. E. Eliot.

Manchuria Mission College, Mukden. *President:* D. T. Robertson, M.A.

Medhurst College, Shanghai. *President:* Rev. E. J. Malpas, B.A.

Nanking Union University. *President:* A. J. Bowen, B.A.

North China Union College, Tungchow. *President:* H. S. Galt, M.A.

North China Union College of Theology. *President:* C. H. Fenn, D.D.

North China Union Woman's College, Peking. *President:* Miss L. Miner, M.A.

Peking University. *President:* H. H. Lowry, D.D.

Shanghai Baptist College. *President:* J. T. Proctor, B.D.

Shanghai Baptist Theological Seminary. *President:* R. T. Bryan, D.D.

Shansi University, Taiyuanfu (now reverted to Chinese control).

Shantung Christian University Arts College, Weihsien. *President:* P. D. Bergen, D.D.

Shantung Christian University Theological College, Tsingchowfu. *President:* J. P. Bruce.

Shantung Christian University Union Medical College, Tsinan. *President:* J. Boyd Neal, M.A., M.D.

Soochow University. *President:* J. W. Cline, D.D.

St. John's University, Shanghai. *President:* F. L. Hawks Pott, D.D.

Swatow Women's Bible Training School. *President:* Miss E. G. Traver.

Trinity College, Ningpo. *President:* W. S. Moule, M.A.

Union Medical College, Hankow. *President:* R. T. Booth, M.D.

Union Medical College, Peking. *Principal:* J. G. Cormack, L.R.C.P., F.R.C.S.

Union Theological College, Foochow. *President:* W. A. Main.

United Methodist College, Wenchow. *President:* T. W. Chapman, M.SC.

Wesley College, Wuchang. *President:* E. F. Gedye, M.A.

West China Union University, Chengtu. *President:* Joseph Beech, D.D.

William Nast College, Kiukiang. *President:* C. F. Kupfer, PH.D.

Woman's Union College of South China, Foochow. *President:* Miss L. A. Trimble.

Women's Union College, Nanking. *President:* Miss Laura M. White.

Yale College, Changsha. *Dean:* B. Gage.

There are also numerous schools and colleges under Roman Catholic Missions, throughout the Empire, including a University at Sicawei, near Shanghai.

Hongkong University

The University of Hongkong, the foundation stone of which was laid on March 16, 1910, was opened on March 11, 1912, by Sir Frederick Lugard, Governor of Hongkong. Sir Charles Eliot, formerly Vice-Chancellor of Sheffield University, was appointed the first Principal. The formation of a University had been advocated by Sir Frederick Lugard in a speech made in December, 1907, and Mr. H. N. Mody offered to erect the necessary buildings at a cost of $150,000, and to give $30,000 towards an endowment fund. When it was found that the cost of the buildings would exceed the former amount, Mr. Mody undertook to defray the cost, whatever it might be, and steps were then taken to raise an endowment fund, towards which Messrs. Butterfield and Swire contributed £40,000. Donations were received from all parts of the world, in particular from Chinese at home and abroad, and before the end of 1909 the Endowment and Equipment Fund had reached the sum of $1,279,164. The University was incorporated under local ordinance, and came into existence on March 30, 1911. The objects which the University has in view are described in the preamble to the Ordinance of Incorporation as the promotion of Arts, Science, and Learning, the promotion of higher education, the conferring of degrees, the development and formation of the character of students of all races, nationalities and creeds, and the maintenance of good understanding with the neighbouring country of China.

The following scholarships are tenable at the University:—

1. Donor's Scholarships.
2. Certain scholarships under terms of agreement with the Hongkong College of Medicine.
3. King Edward VII Scholarships (£40 for 5 years).

4. Chater Masonic Scholarship.
5. The President's Scholarships ($400 for 5 years).
6. Loke Yew Scholarships.
7. Canton Scholarships (25 of $300 each: nomination by the Civil Governor of Canton).
8. Ho Fok and Chan Koi Ming Scholarships (6 of £25).
9. Hongkong General Chamber of Commerce Hewett Memorial Scholarships (2 of $300).
10. Chinese General Chamber of Commerce Scholarships (2 of $300).

OFFICERS.

Chancellor: H. E. Sir Francis May, K.C.M.G.

Vice-Chancellor: Sir Charles Eliot, K.C.M.G.

Pro-Vice-Chancellor: G. P. Jordan, M.B.

Deans: Kenelm Hutchinson Digby, F.R.C.S., M.B. (Faculty of Medicine); C. A. Middleton Smith, M.SC., M.I.M.E. (Faculty of Engineering); W. J. Hinton, M.A. (Faculty of Arts).

Registrar: A. C. Franklin, F.I.C.

Nine chairs have been established for Anatomy (Prof. K. H. Digby, M.B., B.S., F.R.C.S.), Physiology (Prof. H. G. Earle, M.A., M.B.), Tropical Medicine (Prof. G. P. Jordan, M.B., C.M., M.R.C.S.), Civil and Mechanical Engineering (Prof. C. A. M. Smith, M.SC., M.I.M.E., A.M.I.E.E.), Electrical Engineering (Prof. T. H. Matthewman, M.ENG., M.I.E.E.), Political Economy (Prof. W. J. Hinton, M.A.), English (Prof. J. D. Wright, M.A.), Mathematics (Prof. T. Stuart, M.A., D.SC.), Physics (Prof. A. G. Warren, B.SC., A.M.I.E.E.).

Tsing Hua College

This college was opened in April, 1911, by the Government as an institution for the preparation of students to be sent at the Government's expense to America in accordance with the undertaking given by China when the United States Government announced its intention to reduce its Boxer Indemnity claim from $24,440,728 to $13,655,492. The college is situated in the park of the same name on the road leading from Peking to the Summer Palace, four miles outside the Hsichihmen (Northwest City Gate). Of the original eighteen teachers engaged from America, half were women teachers. The college opened with 460 students, two-fifths of whom were in the Upper School, the remainder in the Preparatory School. The Revolution of October, 1911, caused the college to be closed, and it was not until May, 1912, that work was resumed. Tong Kai-son was the first President of the College. On his death in August, 1913, the then Dean, Tsur Ye-tsung, was appointed to the post, and G. T. Chao became Dean. Dr. Tsur Ye-tsung resigned in 1918. The College comprises two departments—a High School and a Middle School. The latter receives boys of from 11 to 13 years who have been selected by the provincial educational authorities.

CHAPTER XX

PUBLIC JUSTICE

Judicial Administration

THE judicial administration of China is now in a state of transition. The New Civil, Criminal and Commercial Codes have not yet been promulgated, but their compilation has been completed with the assistance of Japanese experts. In the meantime the old laws of China, except in so far as they have been abrogated or modified by recent legislation, are the law of the land.

Under the old system practically every Provincial Official, except those having no territorial jurisdiction, exercised judicial as well as administrative functions. This to a large extent accounted for the hopeless inefficiency and maladministration of the law courts. Bribery and torture were the rule rather than the exception, and justice was difficult, if not impossible, to obtain on its merits. The cruelties practised in the yamens and prisons, and the barbarous methods of punishment employed, forced the Treaty Powers to claim exterritorial rights over their own nationals. The new system provides for officials with purely judicial powers, but any attempt to train an efficient judiciary must prove abortive until the new codes have taken the place of the old laws.

Four kinds of Courts are comprised in the new scheme. They are :

I. The High Court of Justice (Ta Li Yuan) at Peking, which is the Supreme Court of Appeal for the whole of China.

It is divided into Civil and Criminal Courts, each of which is presided over by a bench of five Judges.

II. Provincial High Court (Kao Teng Shen Pan Ting), established in each Provincial Capital. This is the Supreme Court of the Province. It decides important civil and criminal cases, and also appeals from the District Courts. The bench consists of from three to five Judges.

III. Metropolitan Courts (Ti Fang Shen Pan Ting), established in each Fu, which deal with ordinary civil and criminal cases and appeals from Courts of First Instance. The bench consists of three Judges for appeals, or one for cases of first instance.

IV. Courts of First Instance (Chu Chi Shen Pan Ting), which are to be established in each Hsien throughout the country to deal with minor criminal and civil cases, one Judge presiding over each Court.

A table is appended showing the number of Courts of each grade already established, and to be established, in each Province.

Primary Election petitions will be heard by the Metropolitan Courts, and Final Election petitions by the Provincial High Courts.

It is not intended, for the present, to establish trial by jury, although one or two jury trials actually took place during the initial stages of the Republic. Criminal and civil cases, which in other countries would be tried with juries, will be heard by three to five Judges.

The prerogative of pardoning criminals, and reprieving those condemned to death, formerly exercised by the Emperor, is now retained by the President.

It was intended, early in December of 1912, to summon a Conference of Judicial officials and experts at Peking to discuss judicial reforms, and the establishment of a uniform judicial organization.

It is intended to establish a Law University, at which prospective judges will undergo a three years' course, while judges appointed under the old system will be required to take a year's course.

PRISON ADMINISTRATION

The following is a summarized translation of the scheme of Prison Reform prepared by the Minister of Justice, 1912 :—

Gaols are an essential part of Judicial administration and machinery. The system of Chinese prison administration, which is a very defective one, has been employed for centuries. The prisons have been dark and insanitary, the treatment of prisoners has been barbarous, so that our prison administration has become a byword throughout the civilized world. During the latter years of the Manchu Dynasty the abuses of the present prison system were recognized, and plans for reform were proposed. Now that the Republic has been inaugurated the prison system must be reformed in accordance with the principles of humanity. The punishments hitherto employed must be modified, and the gaols must be reformed. Moreover, owing to the fact that our prison system and our system of administration of justice are not up to the standard of Western civilization, Western nations decline to treat us upon an equal footing, and claim the right of exterritorial jurisdiction over their subjects—a fact which is humiliating to the Republic. When I (the Minister of Justice) visited Washington, I attended the International Prisons Conference, where I studied the prison systems of other countries, and the tendencies of modern prison administration. I consider that the reform of the Chinese prison system is an urgent matter. It should not be attempted upon too large, nor upon too small a scale, taking into consideration the present financial situation. About seven years will be required to complete prison reforms in the twenty-two provinces. During the coming winter a conference of judicial authorities will be summoned at the Ministry of Justice in Peking to discuss the problems of prison reform. In the meantime the judicial authorities will report upon the gaols in their respective districts, to the Ministry. The Peking Model Gaol, which has already been completed, will be opened this year.

Two years ago a plan for reforming the prisons of the capitals and commercial ports of the provinces was drawn up. The number of prisons under this plan, including those already built, will be about 60. For building and opening them a sum of about $4,000,000 will be required. These prisons should be completed by the end of the third year of the Republic, and thereafter plans must be made for constructing prisons in the Hsiens. It will be impracticable to provide a gaol for each Hsien, and several Hsiens will therefore be combined, and one prison allotted among them. As there are at present some 1700 Hsiens in China, if one gaol be allotted to every six or seven Hsiens about 240 gaols will be required, and if $100,000 be expended upon the construction of each gaol a sum of $24,000,000 will be necessary. The prisoners awaiting trial ought not to be sent to the same prisons as convicted criminals, and it is therefore advisable that the existing gaols should be repaired, and adapted, to some extent, to modern conditions, and temporarily divided in the proportion of two-thirds and one-third, respectively, for accommodating prisoners undergoing sentence, and persons awaiting trial. For such alterations a sum of $1,900,000 would be required, spread over a term of seven years. Buildings should also be provided for reformatories, and Prisoners' Protection and Aid Societies. Taking an average, the amount spent upon the above reforms annually would amount to about $3,000,000, which cannot be considered excessive for the whole of China.

Prisons to accommodate up to 250 convicts are to be built in cruciform design; those intended to accommodate 500 convicts should be constructed in double cruciform design. If 300 gaols be constructed, each to hold 500 prisoners, the annual cost of upkeep at $50,000 per gaol, will be about $15,000,000. This might be considered excessive, but it must be remembered that in England and Japan, for instance, the bulk of the cost of prison administration is met by the labour of the prisoners, leaving only a small sum annually to be met by the Treasury. In China also, prisoners should be trained to do useful work, and it may be hoped that in the future their labour will produce at least $10,000,000 per annum, leaving only $5,000,000 to be met by the Treasury.

As regards the treatment of prisoners, they should not be herded together, but should be accommodated in separate cells. The cell system will be more expensive, but it and other reforms will be introduced gradually until the stage attained in Western Prison Administration is reached. In this way criminals will be benefited without unduly taxing China's financial resources.

COURTS OF

The Ministry of Justice supplies the following list of Courts already

	High Courts (*Kao Teng Shen Pan Ting*).		Branch High Courts.		Chief Procurator's Courts (*Kao Teng Chien Cha Ting*).		Branches.		Metropolitan Courts (*Ti Fang Shen Pan Ting*).	
	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B
Chihli	1	...	1	...	1	...	1	...	2	...
Fengtien	1	...	..	...	1	...	...	...	6	...
Kirin	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	3	...
Heilungkiang	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...
Kiangsu	1	...	2	...	1	...	2	...	53	7
Anhui	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	3
Shantung	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...
Shansi	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...
Honan	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	7
Shensi	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	11
Kansu	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Sinkiang	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	4
Fukien	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...
Chekiang	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	11	...
Kiangsi	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	4	1
Hupeh	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	11	...
Hunan	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...
Szechuan	1	...	1	...	1	...	1	...	3	...
Kuangtung	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	4	...
Kuangsi	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...
Yunnan	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...
Kueichow	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1
Total	19	3	4	...	19	3	4	...	113	35

A. Already established.

NOTE.—Courts according to above schedule are to be

JUSTICE

established, or shortly to be established, throughout China.

Branches.		Metropolitan Procurator's Courts (*Ti Fang Chien Cha Ting*).		Branches.		Courts of First Instance (*Chu Chi Shen Pan Ting*).		Procurator's Courts of First Instance (*Chu Chi Chien Cha Ting*).		Total of Courts already established.	Total of Courts yet to be established.	Grand Total.
A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B	A	B			
1	...	2	...	1	...	5	...	5	...	20	...	20
...	...	6	...	1	...	7	...	7	...	29	...	29
...	...	3	...	...	...	10	...	10	...	28	...	28
...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	6	...	6
1	...	53	7	1	...	53	7	53	7	220	28	248
...	...	2	3	...	...	2	3	2	3	10	12	22
...	...	2	...	...	...	3	...	3	..	12	...	12
...	...	2	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	8	...	8
...	...	2	7	...	...	2	7	2	7	10	28	38
...	...	1	11	...	...	2	83	2	83	8	188	196
...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...	2	8	...	8
...	...	...	4	...	...	...	4	...	4	18	...	18
1	...	2	...	1	...	4	...	4	...	16	—	16
...	...	11	...	...	...	11	64	11	64	46	128	174
...	...	4	1	...	...	4	4	4	4	18	10	28
...	...	11	...	...	...	69	...	69	...	162	...	162
...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	6	...	6
6	...	3	...	6	...	10	...	10	...	42	...	42
2	...	4	...	2	...	8	...	8	...	30	...	30
...	...	2	...	...	...	3	...	3	...	12	...	12
...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	6	...	6
...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	6	6
11	...	113	35	12	...	197	175	197	175	689	426	1115

B. To be established.

in operation by the seventh year of the Republic,

LIST OF PRISONS (Established or Projected)

Province.	City.	Name of Prison.	Established or Projected.	Cost of Construction.	Cost of Inauguration.	Annual Expenditure.
Peking	Wangpinghsien	Peking Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Chihli	Tientsin	Chihli Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Chengtehfu	Chengteh Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Fengtien	Mukden	Chengti Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Hsinmintun	Hsinmin Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Kirin	Kirin	Kirin Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Heilungkiang	Aigun	Heilungkiang Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Kiangsu	Soochow	Kiangsu Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Nanking	Kiangning Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls 15,000	—
	Shanyanghsien	Shanyang Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls 15,000	—
Anhui	Anking	Anhui Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Hih-hsien	Hih-hsien Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Fukien	Minhsien	Fukien Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Tsinkianghsien	Tsinkiang Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Chekiang	Ts'ientang	Chekiang Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Kinhsien	Kinhsien Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Kiangsi	Sinkienhsien	Kiangsi Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Kanhsien	Kanhsien Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Hupeh	Kianghsiahsien	Hupeh Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Tunghuhsien	Tunghu Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Hunan	Changsha	Hunan Gaol	,,	Tls 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Wulinghsien	Wuling Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Szechuan	Chengtu	Szechuan Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Pahsien	Pahsien Gaol	,,	Tls 80,000	Tls 15,000	—
Kuangtung	Nanhaihsien	Kuangtung Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
	Kiungshanhsien	Kiungshan Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Kuangsi	Linkueihsien	Kuangsi Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Suenhuahsien	Suenhua Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Yunnan	Kuenminghsien	Yunnan Model Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Kueichow	Kueichuh-hsien	Kueichow Model Gaol	,,	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Shensi	Changanhsien	Shensi Model Gaol	,,	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Kansu	Kaolanhsien	Kansu Gaol	Projected	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Sinkiang	Urumtsi	Sinkiang Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Shansi	Yangkuhsien	Shansi Modern Gaol	Established	—	—	Tls. 50,000
Shantung	Lichenghsien	Shantung Model Gaol	,,	—	—	Tls. 50,000
	Chefoo	Chefoo Gaol	Projected	Tls 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—
Honan	Siangfuhsien	Honan Gaol	,,	Tls. 80,000	Tls. 15,000	—

EXTERRITORIALITY

The principle of exterritoriality, by which foreigners are subject to the jurisdiction of officials of their own nationality, has been accepted by China from the earliest days of intercourse with the outside world. Thus the Treaty between Russia and China, signed in 1689, stipulated (Article II) that the subjects of either nation guilty of breaches of the frontier should be handed over to their respective officials for punishment. In the Treaty signed October 21, 1727, Article X read: "Ceux qui passe la frontière et qui volent des chameaux ou d'autre bétail seront remis à leurs juges naturels," but from October 18, 1768, this Article was superseded by a more explicit arrangement, in which appeared the words: "Subjects of the Middle Kingdom (China) who shall have committed acts of brigandage shall be handed over, without distinction of persons, to the tribunal governing the outer provinces, to be punished with death; and subjects of the Oros (Russians) shall be handed over to the senate, to undergo the same penalty."

The Treaty of Nanking between Great Britain and China made no specific mention of exterritoriality, but provided (Article II) for the appointment of Consular officers to reside at the five open ports, "to be the medium of communication between the Chinese authorities and the said merchants, and to see that the just duties and other dues of the Chinese Government . . . are duly discharged by Her Britannic Majesty's subjects." General Regulations for the British trade at the five open ports were drafted in July, 1843, and No. 13 enacted that provision was to be made for the punishment of English and Chinese criminals according to the laws of their respective countries and at the hands of their respective officials. By the Treaty of Tientsin, 1858, this Regulation was amended, and the subject was dealt with in Articles XV, XVI, and XVII. Article XV read: "All questions in regard to rights, whether of property or person, arising between British subjects, shall be subject to the jurisdiction of the British authorities." Article XVI read: "Chinese subjects who may be guilty of any criminal act towards British subjects shall be arrested and punished by the Chinese authorities, according to the laws of China. British subjects who may commit any crime in China shall be tried and punished by the Consul, or other public functionary authorized thereto, according to the laws of Great Britain."

In 1844, however, the principle of exterritoriality was clearly laid down in the Treaty between the United States and China in the wording subsequently followed in the Treaty of Tientsin above quoted, and a similar clause has since been inserted in the treaties of other Powers.

In the Chefoo Agreement (Section II) the subject was again amplified, Clause 3 reading: "It is agreed that, whenever a crime is committed affecting the person or property of a British subject, whether in the interior or at open ports, the British Minister shall be free to send officers to the spot to be present at the investigation. . . . It is further understood that, so long as the laws of the two countries differ from each other, there can be but one principle to guide judicial proceedings in mixed cases in China, namely, that the case is tried by the official of the defendant's nationality, the official of the plaintiff's nationality merely attending to watch the proceedings in the interests of justice. . . . The law administered will be the law of the nationality of the officer trying the case."

The principle was more elaborately worded in the Supplementary Treaty between the United States and China, signed at Peking, November 17, 1880. Article IV of this Treaty reads :—

"When controversies arise in the Chinese Empire between citizens of the United States and subjects of His Imperial Majesty, which need to be examined and decided by the public officers of the two nations, it is agreed between the Governments of the United States and China that such cases shall be tried by the proper official of the nationality of the defendant. The properly authorized official of the plaintiff's nationality shall be freely permitted to attend the trial, and shall be treated with the courtesy due to his position. He shall be granted all proper facilities for watching the proceedings in the interests of justice. . . . If he so desires, he shall have the right to present, to examine and to cross-examine witnesses. If he is dissatisfied with the proceedings he shall be permitted to protest against them in detail. The law administered will be the law of the nationality of the officer trying the case."

The principles set forth in the above clauses form the basis of the procedure in vogue at the Mixed Courts in China. The Mixed Court at Shanghai, however, had already been established, its rules of procedure having been promulgated by the British Consul of that port on April 20, 1869.

Treaty Powers

The countries that have treaty rights in China are Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Mexico, Netherlands, Norway, Peru, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden and the United States.

British Jurisdiction

Great Britain and the United States have established in China separate Courts outside Consular jurisdiction. His Majesty's Supreme Court for China was established by Order in Council, 1865. By Order in Council, dated October 24, 1904, it is enacted :—

ARTICLE 17.—The Supreme Court shall ordinarily sit at Shanghai ; but may, if it seems expedient, sit at any other place within the limits of this Order, and may at any time transfer its ordinary sittings to any such place as the Secretary of State approves. Under this Article the Judges may sit at the same time at different places, and each sitting shall be deemed to be a sitting of the Supreme Court.

ARTICLE 18.—The Judge, or, under his direction, an Assistant Judge may visit, in a magisterial or judicial capacity, any place in China . . and there inquire of, or hear and determine, any case, civil or criminal and may examine any records or other documents in any Provincial Court, and give directions as to the keeping thereof.

ARTICLE 19.—Every commissioned Consular officer, with the exception of those at Shanghai and with such other exceptions (if any) as the Secretary of State thinks fit to make, shall for and in his Consular district, hold and form a Court, in this Order referred to as a Provincial Court.

ARTICLE 21.—All His Majesty's jurisdiction, civil and criminal, including any jurisdiction by this Order conferred expressly on a Provincial Court, shall for and within the district of the Consulate of Shanghai be vested exclusively in the Supreme Court as its ordinary original jurisdiction.

ARTICLE 22.—All His Majesty's jurisdiction, civil and criminal, not under this Order vested exclusively in the Supreme Court, shall to the extent and in the manner provided by this Order be vested in the Provincial Courts.

ARTICLE 23.—The Supreme Court shall have in all matters, civil and criminal, an original jurisdiction, concurrent with the jurisdiction of the several Provincial Courts, to be exercised subject and according to the provisions of this Order.

ARTICLE 24.—The Registrar of the Supreme Court shall, subject to any directions of the Judge, hold preliminary examinations, and shall hear and determine such criminal cases in that Court as are not, under this Order, required to be heard and determined on a charge.

His Majesty's High Court of Weihaiwei was established by Order in Council, July 24, 1901.

American Jurisdiction

The United States District Court for China was established by Act of Congress, June 30, 1906, and the first term began on January 2, 1907.

Extradition

Limited provisions for extradition have been inserted in the treaties made by the Powers with China, and more specific clauses deal with extradition as between China and Burma, Hongkong, Indo-China and Siberia. But China is without extradition treaties and extradition laws such as apply in other large countries.

By the Order in Council of October 24, 1904, the Fugitive Offenders Act, 1881, and the Colonial Prisoners Removal Act, 1884, are made to apply to China, "as if those places were a British possession and part of His Majesty's dominions."

CHAPTER XXI

RELIGIONS

IT is customary to speak of the religions of China as three in number—*Confucianism*, *Taoism* and *Buddhism*. Probably a more correct statement of the facts would be, that China, apart from the monastical profession of Buddhism, merely recognizes one religion based on a belief in the animation of the universe with good and evil spirits, which finds expression, as one writer has said, "in countless acts of propitiation or exorcism all designed to preserve or restore the proper balance of power between good and evil," and that in this religion are included (1) *ancestor-worship*—"the very core of the religious and social life of the people" (J. J. M. de Groot, PH.D.); (2) Confucianism—a moral code rather than a form of worship; (3) Taoism, and (4) Buddhism; the last two supplying the forms of ritual or outward observances without calling for any corresponding degree of religious faith.

Ancestor-worship enters into the life of the Chinese as a religion in a more real form than any other system, the spirits of ancestors being worshipped, and attempts to merit their good-will and kindly offices being made, more conscientiously than in the dealings with the numerous deities incorporated with Taoism and Buddhism. The worship of ancestors is a natural corollary to Confucianism, though antecedent to it.

Confucianism

Confucius (Kung Fu-tze) was born in 551 B.C. and died 479 B.C. The family was of noble descent, but his father was in poor circumstances. Student life began for Confucius at the age of fifteen. Five years later he took office in a subordinate post and at the age of twenty-two he began public teaching. In later life he held office as magistrate for a short time. His teaching was less an original philosophy than an attempt to inculcate a standard of morality based on his interpretation of history as he had read it. It is impossible to overrate his influence on the moral, social, and political life of his fellow-countrymen, and that influence, though possibly on the wane now, has extended over two thousand years. The cult of Confucianism, as practised in modern times, however, did not become fully established until many centuries after the Sage's death. He is not worshipped as a god, but sacrifices were offered to his manes officially in the name of the State by the Emperor, and in numerous temples throughout the country by the officials. The cult, however, does not appeal to the masses, the temple observances being confined to the official classes and the literati. At the same time Confucian ideals of life and conduct permeate the whole people.

Taoism

Taoism is theoretically the development of a philosophy—the doctrine of the right way, the "return" to which represents the consummation of supreme happiness—enunciated by or rather attributed to Laotze (*flor.* 570 B.C.). As practised to-day in China Taoism is a debased ritual embodying a polytheistic hotchpotch of witchcraft and demonology. On the subject of Taoism Mr. R. F. Johnston[1] says:—

> "Most of the Taoist temples (in the territory of Weihaiwei) are poor in outward appearance and their interiors are often dirty and evil-smelling; while the images of the numerous Taoist deities are of cheap manufacture and tawdry in ornament. . . . It is only the larger temples that have resident priests. . . . The official duties of the priests consist in very little more than looking after the temple buildings, seeing to the repair of the images when their clay arms and legs fall off (this is a duty they often shirk), and calling the attention of the deities to the presence of visitors who have brought offerings and desire to offer up prayers. Their services as magicians and retailers of charms are also invoked from time to time by private persons. . . . Apart from these (occasional) visits the temples are usually deserted except on one or two annual occasions, such as the celebration of a local festival. The temple then becomes one of the centres of attraction, and its precincts are thronged from morning to night by crowds of well-dressed men and women and children, eager to register their vows or make their petitions. The worshippers knock their heads on the ground as acknowledgement of humility and powerlessness, while the priest strikes a tinkling bronze bowl with a view to awakening the god from his slumber. In front of every image stand jars containing sticks of burning incense. . . . The courtyard resounds with fire-crackers and bombs which are supposed to frighten away any wandering spirits of evil. . . . In front of the temple stands the open-air stage where a group of masked or painted actors . . . Popular Taoism provides deities or spiritual patrons for all the forces of nature, diseases (from the devil-possession to toothache), wealth and rank and happiness, war, old age, death, childbirth, towns, and villages, trades, mountains, and rivers and seas, lakes and canals, heaven and hell, sun, moon, and stars, roads and places where there are no roads, and thunder, every separate part and organ of the human body, and indeed for almost everything that is cognisable by the senses and a good deal that is not. It need hardly be said that no Taoist temple in existence contains images of all these spiritual personages, or a hundredth part of them. Each locality possesses its own favourites."

Buddhism

Buddhism in China Proper, where it was introduced from India during the first century of our era, bears as little resemblance to the religion in its purer forms, as it may be found in other countries, as does modern Taoism to the presumptive doctrines of Laotze. If Buddhism exists anywhere in the country as a pure faith, it will be only in some of the great monasteries (Johnston), and even in these the monkhood is almost entirely a degenerate class. As a so-called religion of the people it is hardly distinguishable from Taoism, whose deities it has had to borrow largely in order to popularize its own temples. Its hold on the people is restricted mainly to beliefs and ceremonies connected with death and burial.

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[1] *Lion and Dragon in the Northern China*, by R. F. Johnston. John Murray, London.

Although Tibet is now the centre of the Buddhist world, the religion did not penetrate into the country until the seventh century A.D., and then from China. Here again the purer ethics of Buddhism have been swallowed up in what is generally styled Lamaism, the system of priestcraft that would seem to have exercised such a baneful influence on the country. Huge monasteries, some of which may contain as many as 10,000 lamas, have sapped the energy and intelligence of the people for centuries, until the country has become a byword for sloth and decadence. The spiritual and temporal government of the country is nominally shared between the Dalai Lama (at the Potala, Lhasa), the Supreme Pontiff of Buddhism, and the Tashi Lama in Tashilumpo, but there has been a tendency on the part of the present incumbent of the former office to concentrate both spiritual and temporal power in his own hands.

Dalai Lama. The present Dalai Lama is the thirteenth holder of the office of Supreme Pontiff of Buddhism, the spiritual and temporal ruler of the greater part of Tibet. He is 37 years of age (1912), and is described as being of the normal Tibetan type, slightly pock-marked, with swarthy complexion, a small black moustache, prominent and large dark brown eyes and good white teeth.

On the approach of the Younghusband Expedition of 1904 the Dalai Lama fled from Lhasa and made his way to Urga in the north of Mongolia. In September, 1905, he left for Sining on the borders of Tibet, and during the following year wandered about the borders of Tibet, mainly in Kansu province, near Sining or Kanchou. Early in 1908 he went to Taiyuanfu and thence to Wutaishan, in Shansi, one of the Sacred Mountains of China. An Imperial Decree of July 19 summoned him to Peking, and he arrived in the capital on September 28, 1908. Leaving Peking on December 21, he made his way to Lhasa by the northern route via Tungkuan, Sianfu, Lanchou and Kumbun, spending a year on the road. In October, 1909, he is reported a fortnight's march from Lhasa, and actually reached his capital on December 25, 1909. Trouble had already been brewing, for the Dalai Lama had sent messages to India complaining of the action of the Chinese officials. Chinese troops had entered Eastern Tibet and were on their way to Lhasa. On January 20, 1910, a small fight took place between Chinese and Tibetans at Chiamdo, and on February 12 a force of forty Chinese mounted troops and two hundred infantry arrived in Lhasa. The same evening the Dalai Lama fled to India, crossing the Brahmaputra on the 13th and reaching Nagartse on the 15th. Continuing his journey via Ralung, Nor, Dochen and Phari, he reached Gnatong on the 21st and

Darjiling on the 27th. The Dalai Lama subsequently visited Calcutta and returned to Darjiling. An Imperial Edict was issued in Peking deposing the Dalai Lama and ordering steps to be taken for the appointment of a successor. The decree, however, remained a dead letter, as Lamaism showed no signs of tolerating a new "Living Buddha" during the lifetime of another. On the outbreak of the Revolution in China the Chinese garrison at Lhasa mutinied in sympathy with the revolutionaries, and the excesses committed by the soldiers led to a revolt of the Tibetans against Chinese authority. The rising was successful, and in June, 1912, the Dalai Lama returned to Lhasa from Darjiling. A Presidential Mandate of October 28, 1912, restored him to his office and rank. (See also Tibet, Chap. XXVI.)

The Buddhist Hierarchy

(*The information contained in the following pages is derived mainly from Mayers' "Chinese Government," and from official publications furnished by the Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet.*)

LAMA.—This designation is applied to all members of the priesthood observing the forms of Tibetan Buddhism.

DALAI LAMA.—The Dalai Lama (*Cheptsun Djamts'o Rinpoch'e*, i.e. Venerable Ocean Treasure) is the senior of the joint Pontiffs of Tibet, sharing with the Panshen (Tashi) Lama, under the supervision of the Chinese Residents (*Ambans*), the temporal power in Tibet, and regarded as the Senior Pontiff of (Yellow) Buddhism. The present Dalai Lama, the thirteenth holder of the title, whose name is Ah-wang-lo-pu-tsang-tu-pu-tan-chia-ta-chi-chai-wang-chü-chueh-le-lang-chieh, was formally deposed by an Imperial Decree after his flight from Lhasa in 1910. No one, however, was appointed to succeed him, and in June, 1912, following a successful Tibetan revolt against Chinese authority, he returned to Lhasa from Darjiling. He was restored to his office and rank by a Presidential Mandate dated October 28, 1912.

The Dalai Lama's residence is the Potala, a picturesque and mysterious palace at Lhasa. He is regarded as the re-embodiment assumed by the spirit of one of Tsongkhaba's two disciples, and at the same time as an incarnation, or Avatar, of Buddha himself.

When a Dalai Lama died (and few have lived beyond the age of twenty) the fact was reported to the Throne by the Chinese Amban, and a special envoy was sent to Lhasa to "change the bed" for his successor.[1] Inquiries were made by the priesthood with reference to miraculous portents which might have been observed in connection with the birth of male children about the same period. The necessary particulars were always forthcoming, and supplied in due form to the Chinese Amban, who, after scrutinizing them and making a report to

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[1] When a living Buddha dies, according to the Chinese phrase only the bedding is changed: i.e. his spirit passes into the body of his successor.

Peking, summoned a certain number of the children, with their parents, to Lhasa. The prescribed form of selecting the new Dalai Lama was as follows: The names of the selected infants were written upon pieces of iron, which were thrown into water, whereupon the name of the reincarnated Buddha should float upon the surface. In reality, the names were written on slips of paper in Chinese and Tibetan, and each slip is encased in a roll of paste and deposited in a golden urn, the name drawn forth being hailed as that of the new incarnation. After a short period of instruction the newly acclaimed Pontiff, usually at the age of two or three years, was solemnly enthroned, and during his long ensuing minority, the actual administration of the country rested chiefly with the Chinese Amban.

On the paper slips are written the names of the parents as well as those of the candidates. Chapters from the Scriptures are read while the slips are sealed in paste, and deposited in the vase, which is over one foot deep. These are turned over and over by the officiating dignitary, and one is then drawn forth while (in the case of the selection of a Dalai Lama) the Panshen Lama recites a passage from the Buddhist Scripture. The popular idea of employing strips of iron seems to be incorrect; lower incarnations or *Prul-skus* (*Tulkus*) are so selected (Mongol: *Hubilgan*).

The present Dalai Lama was not selected in this manner, but his birthplace, his parents, and himself were seen in a vision mirrored in a lake by the Chief Lama of Galdan Monastery, who afterwards went to the spot indicated by the vision and found the miraculous infant. The latter then underwent the usual tests of recognition, and was duly elected Dalai Lama without any lot-casting.

Both the Dalai Lama and the Panshen Lama had to send a K'an Pu (Abbot) to Peking every two years to carry tribute to the Throne.

When a Dalai Lama visited Peking he received the following gifts from the Throne:—

1	gilded silver tea caddy, weighing 60 ounces.
1	gilded silver vase.
1	silver cup.
2	pieces of dragon-embroidered satin.
2	pieces of serpent-embroidered satin.
2	pieces of embroidered satin.
2	pieces of gold thread satin.
8	pieces of satin interwoven with Chinese characters.
26	pieces of sundry kinds of silk and satin.
5	large scarves (*hada*).
40	small scarves.
10	five-coloured scarves.
2	embossed saddles.

Gifts from the Throne to his retainers were also made according to a fixed scale.

Both the Dalai and the Tashi Lama had jade seals, but permission to use them had first to be given by Imperial Edict, as jade seals are always a special Imperial appanage. For ordinary use they were provided with gold seals.

PANSHEN ERDENI (TASHI) LAMA.—The junior of the two Buddhist Pontiffs of Tibet. He is joint-heir with the Dalai Lama of the spiritual inheritance derived from Tsongkhaba, and is believed by the Tibetans to be worthy of even higher veneration than the Dalai Lama, because his office and functions are less contaminated by worldly cares. He is regarded as an incarnation of the Bodhisattwa Manchusri. "To him is confided the maintenance of the purity of religious doctrine, as to the Dalai Lama is attributed the temporal governance of the Tibetan realm." He resides at Tashilumpo, about 230 miles, or eight days' journey westward from Lhasa. On the death of a Panshen Lama his successor is chosen in the same manner as that of the Dalai Lama. The present Tashi Lama was appointed to succeed the Dalai Lama, on the flight of the latter at the time of the British invasion of Tibet. In December, 1905, he visited India, and was received by King George (then Prince of Wales).

HUTUKHTA (Saint).—"This class of dignitaries," writes Mayers, "to which the Dalai and Panshen Lamas themselves belong, may be said to constitute the most marked and essential feature of Tibetan Buddhism. Derived from a Mongolian word which is interpreted in Chinese as signifying *Tsai Lai Jen*, i.e. one who returns again, an Avatar—the *Hutukhta* supply, in their successive re-embodiments, that transmission of authority in safe or chosen hands which the enforcement of a strict rule of celibacy might otherwise render impracticable. . . . According to traditional theory, the spirit of each *Hutukhta* reappears on his decease, in the person of some newly-born infant, and thus comes forth re-embodied. . . . The number of *Hutukhta* recognized in the Imperial Institutes and registered by the Mongolian Superintendency, is 160 in all. These are distributed as follows: In Tibet 50, including 12 who are known by the distinctive title of *Shaburung;* in Northern Mongolia, 19; in Southern Mongolia, 57; in the Kokonor region of Tibet, 35; and in Chamdo, on the Szechuan border, 5. At and near Peking there are, finally, 14 representatives of the class."

With the exception of the Ch'akhan Nomen Han (a hereditary chieftain of one of the T'umed Banners who claims descent from the Manchusri Hutukhta) they are chosen by drawing lots from the golden urn.

Next to the Dalai and Panshen Lamas the most venerated of these "living Buddhas" is the *Cheptsundampa Hutukhta*, the Metropolitan or Patriarch of the Khalkha tribes. His authority is recognized as supreme by the T'ushet'u and Tsetsen Khanates, and his residence is fixed at Urga, where he was supposed to act as the spiritual colleague of the Chinese Amban. It was the present *Cheptsundampa Hutukhta* who gave the Chinese Government so much trouble in 1911, and finally declared the independence of Outer Mongolia, under his own sovereignty, on the inauguration of the Republic.

The other most important *Hutukhta* are eight in number, their titles being :—

Changchia Hutukhta, the Peking Metropolitan.
Galdan Siretu Hutukhta.
Minchur Hutukhta.
Chilung Hutukhta (Tibet).
Namuka Hutukhta (Siningfu).
Achia Hutukhta (Siningfu).
Lakuo Hutukhta.
Tsahantarkhan Hutukhta.

Every Hutukhta was supposed to come to Peking on attaining the age of eighteen to render homage to the Throne, but it was provided that none might visit the capital until he had had small-pox. Thereafter, each Hutukhta was supposed to visit the capital at intervals of six years, arriving in the eleventh moon. Those under age might send delegates to represent them, but if they failed to come themselves or to send delegates they were punished by the deprivation of their title.

On coming to Peking each Hutukhta had to present the Throne a *hada* (scarf), receiving another and other gifts in return. When the *Cheptsundampa Hutukhta* intended to visit Peking, his intention had to be reported to the Throne by the Urga Amban. A special delegate was appointed to accompany him on behalf of the Chinese Government, and the Khalkha Princes also had to appoint eight delegates to accompany and protect him. While in Peking he resided in a temple where a yellow tent, 20 *chang* in length and 10 *chang* wide (200 ft. by 100 ft.), was erected for his use.

Other Buddhist Lamas

Other dignitaries of the Buddhist Church are *Jassak Da Lamas*, and *Jassak Lamas* (Grand Princes, and Princes of the Church), *K'an Pu* (Abbots), *Da Lamas* (Priors), *Fu Da Lamas* (Vice-Priors), *Hsien San Lamas* (Higher Grade Clergy), *Te Mu Ch'i* (Stewards of Lamaseries), *Ke Sze Kuei* (Precentors who conduct the choral services), *Ke Lung* (Priests of the First Order), *Pan Ti* (Priests of the Second Order), and *Sha Pi* (Novices).

The editors of the *China Year Book* are indebted to Sir Edmund Backhouse for the following notes on this section :—

The Hutukta of Inner Mongolia is Kanjur, who resides in the territory of the Siling(h)ol League, Haschid Banner, North of Kalgan. The Tukuan (Manchu *Tukiyen*) resides at Wutui, and received special favour from the late Empress Dowager when he came to Peking in 1906, because he provided gold vessels for her entertainment at Taiyuan. The Minchur Hutukta is at Kumbun, but is attached to the Metropolis. The Lakuo is at Kueihuach'eng. The Changchia (a Manchu word meaning perfect) resides mainly at Dolonor, where a temple was built for his reception. The Tsahantarkhan is at Jehol. The Tungkor resides at Peking. The Changchia proceeded upon one occasion to Lhasa to carry out the ceremony of electing the new Dalai Lama.

The Cheptsundampa (or Je-tsun Dampa), "Holy Reverence," is a reincarnation of the historian, Taranatha Lama, who translated the Buddhist Gospels into Mongol. Originally he resided at Kueihuach'eng. He was killed by one of Kang Hsi's suite, and reappeared among the Khalkhas. It was arranged by the Emperor that he must, hereafter, always be born in Tibet, so as to prevent political intrigues between the Lama and the Mongol Princes. The present Je-tsun Dampa was born in Lhasa, and is the son of a former steward of the Dalai Lama.

Mohammedanism

It is estimated officially that Mohammedanism is the religion of from fifteen to twenty millions of people in China. They are to be found mainly in Chinese Turkestan, Kansu, Shensi and Yunnan. The first Mohammedans entered China overland in the seventh century. Although no disabilities are placed upon Mohammedans for their religion, they are marked off from the rest of their fellow-countrymen almost as distinctly as if they were of a separate nationality. Individual Mohammedans, however, rise to prominence in Chinese officialdom. It is a debated point to what extent Chinese Mohammedanism conforms to the tenets of Islam otherwise than in abstinence from pork; but, as one observer remarks, "the fact remains that some Chinese Mohammedans do still occasionally make the pilgrimage to Mecca; and well-attended Mohammedan mosques may yet be found in at least half the provinces of China" (R. F. Johnston).

The history of Mohammedanism in China has been characterized by fierce rebellions, but it cannot be said that religious fanaticism on the part of the Mohammedans has been the real *casus belli*. The two chief rebellions in the nineteenth century lasted from 1855 to 1873 and from 1861 to 1877. The respective theatres of the outbreaks were Yunnan and Shensi, and, although the sense of a common cause may have intensified the resistance of the Mohammedans in each case, the two struggles developed on independent lines. In Yunnan the origin of the revolt, known as the Panthay Rebellion, was a dispute among miners, in which the Mohammedan section was opposed by the "orthodox" Chinese section. A preliminary success on the part of the former led to reprisals from the Chinese population at large, and the conflict thus started ended in a formidable campaign. The struggle brought to the front the great Mohammedan leader Tu Wen-hsiu, who in 1867 proclaimed himself Sultan, with Talifu, captured in 1857 and held until 1873, as his capital. Treachery hastened the subjugation of the Mohammedans, and Tu Wen-hsiu, after swallowing poison, surrendered to the Imperial troops. A great massacre of Mohammedans followed the collapse of the rebellion.

In the north the immediate cause of the outbreak is said[1] to have been a quarrel between Chinese and Tungani (Chinese Mohammedans) over the division of some spoil taken from a rebel chieftain. Again the conflict rapidly assumed formidable proportions, and finally spread from the

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[1] *In the Footsteps of Marco Polo*, by Major C. D. Bruce. Wm. Blackwood and Sons.

Yellow River, the boundary between Shensi and Shansi provinces, to the farthest confines of Chinese Turkestan. Here Yakub Beg proclaimed himself Ameer of Kashgaria, and for nearly ten years the triumph of the Mohammedans was complete. From the beginning of 1871 the tide turned. A Chinese army under General Tso Tsung-tang was massed in Shensi and began a slow but methodical march westwards, re-establishing the Imperial power as it proceeded. The whole of Kansu had submitted by 1873, and in December, 1877, the last three strongholds of the Mohammedans in Kashgaria, Yarkand, Kashgar and Khotan, were in the hands of the Chinese troops.

A smaller revolt of Mohammedans, on the western borders of Kansu, broke out in 1889, and another in 1905.

Judaism

A colony of a few hundred Chinese Jews is established at Kaifengfu, the capital of Honan. Records remain of the building of a synagogue in that town in 1183 and of its rebuilding in 1488, and it is probable that between these dates the Jews formed a flourishing community. To-day, however, they are in a poverty-stricken condition, having lost practically all knowledge of their sacred tongue and of their religion and its traditions. An attempt is being made to reclaim the colony from its parlous plight. The site of the synagogue was purchased in February, 1913, by the Anglican Mission.

Christianity

Christianity, as far as can be established by records, was first introduced into China by the Nestorian priest Alopen (Olopen) in A.D. 635. This statement rests on the authority of the Nestorian Monument[1] discovered at Sianfu (Singanfu) in 1625. In March of that year trenches were being dug for the foundations of some building near the district town of Chouchih, thirty or forty miles south-west of Sianfu, when the workmen came upon a great slab of stone buried several feet beneath the surface of the ground. The stone was raised and cleaned, and it was seen to be covered with an inscription of the Tang Dynasty, in Chinese and some foreign characters, of beautiful workmanship and in a perfect state of preservation. It was removed by order of the magistrate of Chouchih to a temple about a mile and a half outside the west gate of Sianfu. There the stone was set up and remained until October 2, 1907, when it was placed in the Peilin, a collection of ancient inscriptions inside the city walls.

"The monument is formed of one slab of stone. The upper part contains the title in nine large characters surmounted by the cross and enclosed in hornless dragons. The lower part, containing the inscription and lists of names on the front face and the two edges, measures approximately 3 feet 3·8 inches wide by 11·3 inches at the top, and is about 6 feet 4·83 inches high. The height of the whole stone is about 9 feet 1 inch. It is called *fêng pei*, and so may have marked a Christian cemetery or grave."

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[1] This description of the Nestorian Monument is taken from a Paper by A. C. Moule in the *Journal of the North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society*, Vol. XLI, 1910. The Paper was based on the investigations of Père Henri Havret, S.J.

The history of the stone before 1625 is not known. From the perfect condition in which it was found it is surmised that it was intentionally buried, possibly in A.D. 845, after the issue of an Imperial Decree banishing the Nestorians or closing down their worship. ("As to the monks and nuns who come under the head of aliens," runs the Edict, "making known the religion of foreign countries, we decree that over 3000 (*v.l.* 2000) Syrians and Muhufu return to lay life and cease to confound our native customs.")

The inscription purports to describe the diffusion throughout the Middle Kingdom of the Christian religion. After a recital of certain Christian beliefs, involved and highly embellished, with references to the Creation, the Fall of Man, the Incarnation and the Priesthood, the inscription refers to the arrival in China (A.D. 635) of Raban (Alopen) "of the famous land of Ch'in" (Syria). It quotes the Decree of A.D. 638 sanctioning the Christian religion and authorizing the erection in the I-ning quarter of the metropolis of "a monastery of Syria," with twenty-one men duly admitted as monks, and proceeds to trace the spreading of the religion "over the ten provinces." Buddhist persecution occurred in 713, but Imperial protection was revived thirty years later. The Emperor Tai Tsung (A.D. 763–780) "every year on the day of the Nativity presented divine incense to proclaim the perfected work, and offered a royal feast to do honour to the Christian congregation." Eulogies of the next Emperor and certain officials follow. Finally, after the date and the name of the writer come the names of the revisers, and on each edge of the Monument are other names. The stone was set up (probably on Sunday, February 4) A.D. 781.

The Nestorian Church was flourishing again in the fourteenth century, but at the end of the sixteenth there seem to have been no trace and no memory of it. In the latter part of the thirteenth century China was visited by Roman Catholic missionaries, and in 1307 the Franciscan John of Montecorvino, reached Cambulac (Peking) and was appointed Archbishop by Pope Clement V. The closing of the overland route to China led to a break in missionary endeavours to reach the country, until the sea route had become better known. St. Francis Xavier attempted to reach China, but died in 1552 at an island off the coast of Kuangtung. From that date, however, China has been visited by a constant stream of Roman Catholic missionaries, and particularly Jesuits. Their scientific knowledge has won them the favour and esteem of the Chinese. Two of their number became President of the Board of Mathematics at Peking. (Reference is made elsewhere to the Jesuit Observatory at Sicawei.)

The first Protestant missionary to reach China was the Rev. Robert Morrison, who landed in Canton September 7, 1807. It was not, however, until after the Treaty of Nanking that Protestant missionary work in China made any conspicuous headway.

Both sections of the Christian Church have been subject to persecution, riots, destruction of missionary property, and massacres, the most serious outbreak of all being the Boxer rising of 1900.

During the Revolution of 1911–12 both the contending parties undertook to protect the lives and property of foreigners, but in Sianfu (Shensi) a mob took possession of the city and attacked the missions. Mrs. R. Beckman and her two children, and Mr. W. T. Vatne and four other children of missionaries of the Scandinavian Alliance Mission, were killed. In spite of the good intentions of the authorities it became necessary to withdraw the majority of the missionaries in the interior to the coast as anarchy gradually spread over the country. Szechuan was in this respect the worst province, as a period of insurrection brought about by the railway question preceded the outbreak of the Revolution in Hupeh. This province has also been the last to see missionary work settle down again to normal conditions; but the latest reports indicated that all missionaries would be back at their stations before the end of 1912.

Treaties dealing with the Christian Religion

Religious freedom in China is guaranteed by the Treaties with Great Britain (1842), Belgium (1865), Denmark (1863), France (1858), Germany (1861), Italy (1866), Portugal (1887), Russia (1851, 1858), Spain (1864), United States (1858, 1868, 1903). With it goes the right to build churches and hospitals, to rent or build houses and to open burial grounds. The fullest stipulation on the subject is contained in the last Treaty with the United States. Article XIV reads:—

"The principles of the Christian religion, as professed by the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches, are recognized as teaching men to do good and to do to others as they would have others do to them. Those who quietly profess and teach those doctrines shall not be harassed or persecuted on account of their faith. Any person, whether citizen of the United States or Chinese convert, who, according to these tenets, peaceably teaches and practises the principles of Christianity, shall in no case be interfered with or molested therefor. No restrictions shall be placed on Chinese joining Christian Churches. Converts and non-converts, being Chinese subjects, shall alike conform to the laws of China and shall pay due respect to those in authority, living together in peace and amity; and the fact of being converts shall not protect them from the consequences of any offence they may have committed before, or may commit after, their admission into the Church, or exempt them from paying legal taxes levied on Chinese subjects generally, except taxes levied and contributions for the support of religious customs and practices contrary to their faith. Missionaries shall not interfere[1] with the exercise by the native authorities of their jurisdiction over Chinese subjects, nor shall the native authorities make any distinction between converts and non-converts, but shall administer the laws without partiality, so that both classes can live together in peace."

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[1] Sir E. Satow, British Minister to Peking, addressed a circular in the same tenour to Consuls in China, with instructions to notify missionaries (August 31, 1903). It is pointed out that missionaries "have no right of intervention on behalf of native Christians," and that communications to Chinese officials must be made through one of His Majesty's Consuls or the head of His Majesty's Legation.

Imperial Decrees[1] on the subject of missionaries have been issued as follow:—

June 13, 1891.	Ordering protection to be afforded to foreign missionary establishments.
Aug. 9, 1895.	Ordering protection of missionary establishments and suppression of idle stories and suspicion.
Jan. 15, 1898.	Ordering officials to guard carefully against missionary troubles and to afford "thorough protection to missionaries passing to and fro."

Official intercourse between Roman Catholic missionaries and Chinese officials was regulated by a memorial of the Tsung-li Yamen, which obtained the Imperial assent on March 15, 1899. By the terms of this document Bishops were to rank with Governors-General and Governors, Provicaires and Head Priests with Treasurers, Judges and Taotais, other priests with Prefects and Magistrates. These privileges, which were not accepted by the Protestant Churches, were abolished on April 10, 1908.

Christianity and The Republic

Article 6 of the Provisional Republican Constitution accords religious liberty to the people of China, and the Republican Government has repeatedly announced its intention to abolish all disabilities previously laid on Christians.

On February 23, 1912, President Yuan Shih-kai received a deputation of Chinese Christians (the Revs. Cheng Ching-i, Chen Hung-te, Ku I-wen and Li Yen-ching) and stated that his efforts would be directed towards securing full religious liberty for all. On February 26, in an audience given to the Roman Catholic Bishop of Peking, the President announced that full religious liberty would be assured to all, and that in future every post under the Government, whether civil or military, would be open to all. The old disabilities would disappear.

A meeting of Chinese Christians was also held on February 26, at the Hutung Church, Peking. H.E. Yen Huei-ching, Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, attended on behalf of the President and stated that clauses would be introduced into the new Constitution guaranteeing religious liberty, and that in future the distinctions between Christian and non-Christian would disappear.

In 1913 the Chinese Government appealed to the Christian Churches throughout the world for intercessions on behalf of the young Republic. This request, however, did not imply that the State contemplated any change of religion. Early in 1914 Yuan Shih-kai announced his intention to perform the time-honoured sacrifice to the Most High at the Altar of Heaven on the Winter Solstice, and the seasonal sacrifices to Confucius. A Presidential Mandate of August 30, 1918, appointed the Minister of the Interior to perform, with reverence, the ceremonies connected with the worship of Confucius on behalf of the President. On September 28 the same Minister offered sacrifices before Kuan and Yo (Gods of War).

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[1] See Hertslet's *China Treaties*, Vol. II.

MISSION STATISTICS

A. Protestant Missions.[1]

(1) *Centres of Work*

Provinces.	Year of opening to foreign residence.	Centres with resident missionaries.	Mission stations.	Out stations.	Organized congregations.	Other places of worship.
†Manchuria	1867	27	34	297	71	263
†Chihli	1861	33	53	312	237	61
†Shantung	1860	37	54	963	195	899
Honan	1884	50	60	269	90	156
Shansi	1876	48	53	180	127	80
Shensi	1876	28	30	98	113	11
†Kiangsu	1843	24	96	263	119	276
†Chekiang	1864	29	47	555	397	427
Anhui	1869	22	33	118	90	67
Kiangsi	1867	44	54	183	170	28
Hupeh	1861	32	60	259	*169	*129
Hunan	1897	34	57	229	186	121
†Fukien	1846	41	59	497	668	449
†Kuangtung	1807	69	116	686	452	438
Kuangsi	1894	9	15	44	32	31
Kansu	1877	16	20	18	24	4
Szechuan	1877	51	71	*336	195	149
Kueichow	1877	13	13	57	50	16
Yunnan	1877	10	12	*155	86	2
Total		618	938	5519	3471	3607

* Incomplete.

(2) *Distribution of Missionaries*

Provinces.	Ang.	Bapt.	Cong.	Luth.	Meth.	Pres.	C.I.M.	Other.	Total.
†Manchuria	3	—	—	47	—	108	—	12	170
†Chihli	29	4	104	—	69	48	16	118	388
†Shantung	27	147	16	2	15	129	61	56	453
Honan	14	19	—	119	14	70	65	19	320
Shansi	—	45	24	—	—	—	142	15	226
Shensi	—	31	—	—	—	—	81	5	17
†Kiangsu	97	85	18	2	104	121	63	262	752
†Chekiang	77	47	—	—	34	61	84	14	317
Anhui	24	12	—	—	7	21	42	39	145
Kiangsi	7	2	—	2	22	—	121	55	209
Hupeh	68	—	42	112	64	15	13	38	352
Hunan	19	—	—	48	55	82	68	55	327
†Fukien	141	—	74	—	97	70	—	21	403
†Kuangtung	47	76	31	121	31	167	—	138	611
Kuangsi	7	13	—	—	6	—	—	33	59
Kansu	—	—	—	—	—	—	46	22	68
Szechuan	47	42	—	—	226	—	130	51	496
Kueichow	—	—	—	—	7	—	32	—	39
Yunnan	5	—	—	—	12	—	24	22	63
Sinkiang	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	2
Total	612	523	309	452	763	892	990	976	5517

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[1] Tables taken from the *China Mission Year Book, 1917*. Provinces marked with a † are coast provinces.

(3) *Chinese Christian Workers*

1. *Ordained Clergy.*
2. *Unordained Evangelistic Men.*
3. *Bible Women.*
4. *Teachers, Men.*
5. *Teachers, Women.*
6. *Physicians.*
7. *Medical Assistants.*
8. *Nurses, Men and Women*
9. *Total Chinese Staff.*

Provinces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
†Manchuria .	18	382	99	*217	*106	3	61	40	926
†Chihli . .	48	604	95	332	147	12	26	12	1,278
†Shantung .	70	566	234	817	241	11	21	20	2,002
Honan . .	9	352	110	184	53	2	32	13	724
Shansi . .	1	215	64	179	59	—	17	12	625
Shensi . .	2	193	42	60	17	3	5	5	334
†Kiangsu .	78	611	200	*287	*201	15	54	108	1,646
†Chekiang .	109	789	165	393	160	12	*20	*28	1,696
Anhui . .	17	127	39	145	50	7	13	27	400
Kiangsi . .	20	183	81	160	51	2	6	45	544
Hupeh . .	17	387	85	338	109	5	31	97	1,018
Hunan . .	4	356	63	284	56	9	7	75	837
†Fukien . .	214	714	490	833	605	16	72	138	3,077
†Kuangtung .	81	737	370	593	305	18	52	52	2,194
Kuangsi .	5	81	30	20	25	1	1	1	164
Kansu . .	—	46	13	13	3	1	4	2	78
Szechuan .	17	*392	*86	*416	*49	1	16	42	1,206
Kueichow .	—	63	8	36	—	—	—	—	107
Yunnan .	—	120	5	*51	*4	—	1	2	183
Totals .	710	6,918	2,279	5,358	2,241	118	439	719	19,057[1]
		$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad}_{9907}$		$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad}_{7955}$		$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad}_{1304}$			

* Denominational statistics show an additional number of 1403, making a total for Chinese workers of 20,460.

† For a discussion on the population of China see pp. 2–3.

(4) *The Chinese Protestant Community*

1. *Population in Millions.*†
2. *Ordained Clergy.*
3. *Communicants.*
4. *Baptized Non-Communicants.*
5. *Others under Christian Instruction.*
6. *Total Christian Constituency.*
7. *Sunday School Scholars.*

Provinces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
†Manchuria . . .	14.9	18	20,236	6,296	5,188	31,916	3,541
†Chihli . . .	32.5	48	17,818	2,212	10,231	33,583	12,092
†Shantung . .	29.6	70	32,129	1,250	9,581	43,068	17,950
Honan . . .	25.6	9	8,074	475	7,174	15,666	3,067
Shansi . . .	9.5	1	6,353	—	8,480	14,925	2,860
Shensi . . .	8.8	2	3,825	—	4,958	8,843	1,135
†Kiangsu . .	17.0	78	14,113	2,544	13,076	33,462	21,776
†Chekiang . .	17.0	109	24,228	3,346	20,909	48,536	13,734
Anhu . . .	17.3	17	3,835	908	4,050	8,693	5,014
Kiangsi . . .	14.5	20	4,785	791	4,191	9,767	4,012

Provinces	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hupeh . . .	24.9	17	10,809	5,873	5,352	22,523	5,724
Hunan . . .	23.6	4	6,978	782	4,229	12,291	5,574
†Fukien . . .	13.1	214	29,917	26,864	40,763	100,255	27,172
†Kuangtung . .	27.7	81	50,545	7,157	4,866	64,982	17,770
Kuangsi. . .	6.5	5	3,568	37	251	3,856	1,333
Kansu . . .	5.0	—	761	—	577	1,338	652
Szechuan . .	66.1*	17	8,947	1,463	9,779	20,716	13,242
Kueichow . .	11.3	—	6,330	—	831	7,161	20
Yunnan . . .	8.5	—	7,413	11	22,077	29,597	4,859
Total . .	—	710	260,666	60,009	179,300	511,142	161,527

* Figure used as base of mission estimates by the West China Advisory Board.

The total number of communicants given by the different Societies amounts to 268,652. In addition there are 60,009 baptized non-communicants and 179,300 enrolled inquirers, making a total Christian constituency of just over half a million.

(5) *Communicant Membership by Churches*

Provinces	Ang.	Bapt.	Cong.	Luth.	Meth.	Pres.	C.I.M.	Other S'c'ties.
†Manchuria .	—	—	—	764	—	19,472	—	—
†Chihli .	615	—	6,488	—	8,882	1,438	337	58
†Shantung .	848	13,223	1,662	67	1,459	14,549	135	186
Honan .	89	—	—	2,070	123	2,384	3,072	336
Shansi .	—	711	862	—	—	—	4,780	—
Shensi .	—	1,612	—	—	—	—	2,213	—
†Kiangsu .	2,410	2,626	630	—	3,860	2,443	691	1,453
†Chekiang .	2,446	1,751	—	—	7,261	3,555	8,835	380
Anhui .	529	430	—	—	563	391	1,003	919
Kiangsi .	130	166	—	232	544	—	3,713	—
Hupeh .	1,651	—	2,354	3,943	2,041	524	239	57
Hunan .	199	—	—	2,452	1,504	1,393	906	524
†Fukien .	5,167	—	4,347	—	15,455	4,738	—	210
Kuangtung .	1,252	8,643	5,172	15,933	1,976	16,120	—	1,449
Kuangsi .	90	2,033	—	—	215	—	—	1,230
Kansu .	—	—	—	—	—	—	440	321
Szechuan .	551	1,054	—	—	3,477	—	3,519	346
Kueichow .	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,330	—
Yunnan .	—	—	—	—	5,829	—	1,457	127
(Sinkiang) .	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Totals.	15,977	32,249	21,515	25,461	53,189	67,007	37,672	7,596

Grand Total . . 260,666

(6) *Sunday School Membership by Churches*

Provinces	Ang.	Bapt.	Cong.	Luth.	Meth.	Pres.	C.I.M.	Other S'c'ties.
†Manchuria .	—	—	—	400	—	2,962	—	179
†Chihli . .	50	—	2,927	—	5,505	1,556	—	2,054
†Shantung .	—	6,975	330	—	1,991	8,213	157	285
Honan .	130	—	—	637	205	1,080	545	470
Shansi .	—	592	710	—	—	—	1,468	90
Shensi .	—	320	—	—	—	—	815	—
†Kiangsu .	3,537	3,532	441	—	6,800	2,747	276	4,443
†Chekiang .	52	3,248	—	—	3,746	4,181	2,207	300
Anhui .	1,139	425	—	—	443	1,576	302	1,129
Kiangsi .	235	114	—	—	2,745	—	918	—
Hupeh .	1,809	—	1,044	1,727	312	240	—	592
Hunan .	555	—	—	165	1,101	2,321	400	1,037
Kuangsi .	75	658	—	—	—	—	—	600
†Fukien .	—	—	3,464	—	21,755	100	—	1,853
†Kuangtung .	1,062	5,964	1,386	165	305	6,458	—	2,430
Kansu .	—	—	—	—	—	—	312	340
Szechuan .	209	1,765	—	—	9,653	—	647	978
Kueichow .	—	—	—	—	—	—	20	—
Yunnan .	—	—	—	—	4,800	—	33	26
Total .	8,853	23,593	10,302	3,089	59,361	31,434	8,100	16,795

(7) *Educational Work*

1. *Provinces.*
2. *Foreign Men giving major part of time to educational work.*
3. *Foreign Women giving major part of time to educational work.*
4. *Chinese Teachers, Men.*
5. *Chinese Teachers, Women.*
6. *Kindergarten Pupils.*
7. *Lower Elementary Pupils.*
8. *Higher Elementary Pupils.*
9. *Middle School Pupils.*
10. *Total Pupils in these three grades.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
†Manchuria .	10	15	217	106	15	2,861	2,595	404	5,860
†Chihli .	44	44	332	147	236	5,539	2,396	1,233	9,168
†Shantung .	27	40	817	241	287	*13,550	691	2,003	16,244
Honan .	12	14	184	53	30	3,308	395	174	3,877
Shansi .	4	8	179	59	115	2,994	612	104	3,710
Shensi .	1	2	60	17	—	946	79	—	1,025
†Kiangsu .	56	93	287	201	265	8,188	1,017	3,179	12,384
†Chekiang .	18	29	393	160	43	6,651	1,455	1,058	9,160
Anhui .	10	11	145	50	20	2,774	661	165	3,600
Kiangsi .	5	12	160	51	84	2,544	524	154	3,222
Hupeh .	38	29	338	109	164	5,858	717	601	7,176
Hunan .	31	36	284	56	7	3,977	1,076	465	5,518
†Fukien .	47	118	833	605	833	20,872	3,557	972	25,401
†Kuangtung .	59	—	593	305	360	13,783	2,401	1,062	17,246
Kuangsi .	2	4	20	25	73	335	100	52	487

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Kansu	—	—	13	3	—	258	45	—	303
Szechuan	59	29	416	49	85	11,991	1,075	493	13,559
Kueichow	—	—	36	—	—	705	120	—	825
Yunnan	1	1	51	4	21	1,807	155	181	2,143
Totals	424	563	5,358	2,241	2,638	108,941	19,671	12,300	140,912
			‡7,955			‡128,612			

* Includes many higher elementary pupils.
‡ Including some whose sex was not reported.

The above classification by provinces accounts for 140,912 pupils out of a total of 151,490 as reported by the Societies. There were in addition 7,108 students in other schools (industrial, normal, training, theological, medical).

(8) *Medical Work*

1. *Provinces.*
2. *Foreign Physicians, Men and Women.*
3. *Foreign Nurses.*
4. *Chinese Physicians.*
5. *Chinese Medical Assistants.*
6. *Chinese Nurses, Men and Women.*
7. *Hospital Buildings.*
8. *Beds.*
9. *In-patients.*
10. *Total Treatments.*

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Manchuria	31	2	3	61	40	16	656	3,338	185,476
Chihli	28	5	12	26	12	18	449	5,607	295,401
Shantung	25	8	11	21	20	23	561	4,242	200,443
Honan	15	13	2	32	13	13	523	5,772	133,741
Shansi	7	3	—	17	12	9	256	1,614	44,933
Shensi	5	2	3	5	5	2	70	462	36,741
Kiangsu	34	18	15	54	108	23	1,314	12,389	484,687
Chekiang	18	10	12	20	28	12	774	9,650	192,285
Anhui	6	5	7	13	27	5	163	3,374	82,000
Kiangsi	4	—	2	6	45	5	201	555	54,092
Hupeh	21	13	5	31	97	18	723	7,469	174,746
Hunan	27	11	9	7	70	14	626	4,782	111,649
Fukien	42	22	16	72	138	41	2,208	19,856	431,372
Kuangtung	43	9	18	52	52	30	1,816	9,940	272,568
Kuangsi	7	2	1	1	1	4	63	784	24,053
Kansu	1	1	1	4	2	—	60	419	9,962
Szechuan	40	13	1	16	42	18	394	6,072	215,484
Kueichow	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,600
Yunnan	3	1	—	1	2	1	20	52	23,351
Totals	358	138	118	439	719	252	10,877	96,380	2,976,584
				1,334					

The total number of Mission hospitals is 330, served by 383 missionary and 118 Chinese physicians.

B. Roman Catholic Missions, 1916

NUMBER OF ROMAN CATHOLIC CHRISTIANS BY PROVINCES[1]

Anhui	59,100
Chekiang	47,058
Chihli	500,655
Fukien	59,481
Honan	46,487
Hunan	20,412
Hupeh	91,298
Kansu	6,360
Kiangsi	71,886
Kiangsu	175,621
Kuangsi	4,700
Kuangtung	87,602
Kueichow	32,858
Shansi	56,849
Shantung	135,160
Shensi	46,180
Szechuan and Tibet	141,834
Yunnan	17,714
Manchuria	53,265
Mongolia	94,877
(Macao)	(40,000)
Total	1,789,297

NUMBER OF ROMAN CATHOLIC CHRISTIANS BY SOCIETIES

Lazarists	529,956
Jesuits	328,363
Missions Etrangères de Paris	318,973
Franciscans	241,595
Belgian Missions (Congrégation de Scheutvelt)	101,247
Missions de Steyl (German)	86,150
Dominicans	59,481
Missions de Milan	59,160
Seminary of St. Peter and St. Paul (Rome)	14,625
The Order of St. Augustine (Spanish)	7,529
Seminary of St. Francis-Xavier (Parma)	6,427
Total	1,753,506

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[1] Taken from *Les Missions de Chine et du Japan, 1917.*

CHUNG HUA SHENG KUNG HUI

The Missions of the English, American and Canadian Churches are now incorporated in a united Church of the Anglican Communion in China, under the title of the "Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui," the Constitution and Canons of which were adopted at a Conference held in Shanghai on April 10, 1912.

At a Church Conference held in Shanghai in April, 1918, the following scheme for the organisation of the Congregations of the Church of England in China was adopted:—

RESOLUTIONS OF CONFERENCE

The Conference of Representatives of Church of England Congregations in China, held at Holy Trinity Cathedral, Shanghai, April 6th and 8th, 1918:—

Preamble.

(*a*) Whereas there are a number of Congregations of the Church of England in China, most of them long established and ministered to by English Clergy who are licensed by English Bishops appointed by and owing canonical obedience to the Archbishop of Canterbury; these Congregations being strongly attached to the Church of England, her liturgy, rites, and ceremonies, managing their own affairs, and holding property registered in the British Consulates in China;

(*b*) And whereas the missionary efforts of the Church of England have resulted in the organisation of six Missionary Dioceses in China, besides the Colonial Diocese of Victoria, which Dioceses have, in combination with Dioceses established by other Churches of the Anglican Communion, established a General Synod of the Chinese Church, named the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui, to which all the Chinese Congregations of the Anglican Communion in China and Hongkong now owe allegiance;

(*c*) And whereas the relation of these two bodies has not yet been defined;

Now the Bishops, other Clergy, and Lay Delegates representing these English Congregations in China assembled in Shanghai this 8th day of April, 1918, hereby express their opinion and resolve as follows:-

Resolutions.

1. That it is desirable that the English Congregations in China be formed into an organisation, for mutual counsel and support, for the better defining of their relations with Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui, and for recognising and maintaining intercommunion and mutual good will between the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui and such Congregations.

2. That the scheme attached hereto be adopted for the aforesaid purposes.

3. That these acts of the Conference be communicated to the Archbishop of Canterbury, to the Senior Bishop in China of the Church of America, to the Church of Canada, and to the General Synod of the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui now actually in session.

A Scheme for the Organisation of the English Congregations of China.

Title.—The Organisation shall be called The Society of the Congregations of the Church of England in China.

Membership of the Society.—Any Congregation of the Church of England in China, comprising three or more Communicants and worshipping according to the Book of Common Prayer, which on its request is registered at the Central Office of the Society, shall be a member.

Purposes of the Society.—The general aims of the Society shall be:—

1. To develop the work of the Church among English Churchmen in China.
2. To maintain that work in orderly relation to the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui.

Government of the Society.—The Governing Body shall be called The Chapter of the Society of the Congregations of the Church of England in China.

Personnel of the Chapter.—1. All Bishops of the Church of England in China.

2. All Priests and Deacons duly licensed by such Bishops to minister to English Congregations in China.

3. Lay Representatives of such Congregations in the proportion of one to every hundred communicants or part of a hundred, duly appointed by the Laity of a congregation—The term "communicant" to mean one complying regularly with the rule of the Church as regards communicating.

Place of the Chapter.—The Principal Church of the Society shall be Holy Trinity Cathedral, Shanghai, and the meetings of the Chapter shall be held there.

The Chapter shall ordinarily meet as one body, electing its own chairman for each meeting, but on request of one Bishop, or two or more other members, any matter shall be discussed and voted on by the Bishops, the other Clergy, and the Laity acting separately, a majority in each order being necessary to carry a resolution, provided always that the other Clergy and the Laity may by mutual agreement sit together.

The Chapter shall meet at least once in three years.

The Standing Committee. During the recess of the Chapter, the affairs of the Society shall be in the hands of a Standing Committee to be elected by the Chapter, of which Committee the Dean of Holy Trinity

Cathedral for the time being, or the Priest acting for him, shall be ex officio Chairman.

The Standing Committee shall submit to the Chapter from time to time a report on the operation of the Society, such report when adopted to be sent to (1) the Archbishop of Canterbury, and (2) the Chairman of the House of Bishops of the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui.

Registrar.—A Registrar shall be appointed with an office at the Principal Church, whose duties shall be :—

1. To keep a record of all Congregations in the Society and their Ministers.
2. To keep a record of all Baptisms, Confirmations, Marriages, and Burials in connexion with such Congregations.
3. To act as Secretary to the Chapter and the Standing Committee.

Home Committee.—The Chapter shall appoint a Home Committee consisting of at least three members, one clerical and two lay (the layman having resided in China), who shall keep before the Church at Home the work of the Society, and act on its behalf as occasion may require.

Finance.—Funds will obviously be needed for the work of the Society, and the greater they are, the more assistance the Society will be able to give to weak and scattered congregations. Therefore the Chapter is to be placed in the position of a body legally capable of holding property, to enable it to acquire funds to be spent in promoting the work of the Society. It is not the aim of the Society to interfere with any existing Trust. Any Congregation receiving financial help from the Society *must*, and it is hoped that all Congregations *will*, furnish the Chapter with an annual Balance Sheet.

The Chapter shall appoint a Treasurer of the Society.

Licensing.—1. In the case of Chaplains paid wholly or in part by the Society, applications for Licences shall be made to the Bishop or Bishops concerned, by the Chapter.

2. In Congregations registered as members of the Society, the appointment of permanent Chaplains not paid by the Society shall remain as at present provided for by local Trust Schemes, etc., but it is desirable that all applications to Bishops for Licences to such Chaplains should be endorsed by the Chapter.

3. At the present time all Congregations and Chaplains are under the oversight of Bishops of the Church of England in China. In the event of one of these Bishops being succeeded by a Bishop not of the Church of England, the Chapter shall make application to the Archbishop of Canterbury for the provision of Episcopal oversight in the Chaplaincies affected by the change.

Conclusion.—1. The Chapter shall be bound in all its decisions by the doctrine and discipline, principles and usages rites and ceremonies of the Church of England.

2. The Terms "Society," "Chapter," "Holy Trinity Cathedral," "Registrar," "Dean," shall not be understood to imply that the persons

or buildings to which they refer have any status, dignity, or authority of a diocesan character.

ANGLICAN BISHOPS IN CHINA

North China	The Right Rev. F. L. Norris, D.D.
Anking	The Right Rev. D. T. Huntington, D.D.
Chekiang	The Right Rev. T. S. Sing[1] (Sing Tsen-seng).
Fukien	The Right Rev. H. McC. E. Price, M.A.
Hankow	The Right Rev. L. H. Roots, D.D.
Honan	The Right Rev. W. C. White, D.D.
Kuangsi-Hunan	The Right Rev. W. Banister, D.D.
Mid-China	The Right Rev. Molony, D.D.
Shanghai	The Right Rev. F. R. Graves, D.D.
Shantung	The Right Rev. G. D. Iliff, D.D.
Western China	

Russian Orthodox Mission in Peking

This Mission includes (1910): 1 Bishop, 2 Archimandrites, 10 Priests (3 Chinese), 6 Deacons (2 Chinese), 3 Psalm Readers, 10 Monks, 7 Nuns.

In connection with the Mission there are: 1 Convent in Peking, 18 Mission Stations, 4 Churches, 2 Chapels, 15 Schools.

Young Men's Christian Association

At the end of 1914 the Y.M.C.A. numbered 155 centres in China, with a membership of 21,328. The Peking, Shanghai, and Tientsin centres have social service clubs attached, which are concerned with night schools, playgrounds, and investigations of social conditions.

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[1] Consecrated Oct. 2, 1918, as first Chinese Anglican Bishop.

CHAPTER XXII

PUBLIC HEALTH[1]

AMONG the many benefits which the West has brought to the East the science of medicine occupies a very minor place. Outside the Treaty Ports and Mission stations China stands, in this respect, where she did centuries ago, and human life is sacrificed on the altar of ignorance with a fatalistic callousness that seems almost unjustifiable in the light of latter-day progress. No doubt the empiric system in vogue has much to say for it, but the knowledge of remedies and of disease which is necessary for the successful practice of the method can only be gathered in the rough and costly school of experience.

It is impossible to write with any degree of scientific precision as to disease or health conditions in China owing to the absence of statistics. From reports which have been made by Consular and Customs Medical Officers and by the medical missionaries scattered over the country, we are enabled to get an idea of disease distribution, which is largely governed by climatic conditions. Dr. W. H. Jefferys and Dr. J. L. Maxwell, in their book *The Diseases of China*, have divided the country into seven large districts, and have made the best summary yet published, but for all practical purposes a consideration of three main divisions, North, Mid, and South China, will suffice.

1. *North China.*—From 35° lat. northward the climate is pleasantly warm, though often hot in summer and cold and invigorating in winter. Plague is present occasionally; cholera from time to time; dysentery is endemic, and typhus fever is frequent. Of late an increasing number of malarial fever cases have been noted. Climatically, it is a healthy region.

2. *Central China.*—From 28° to 35° lat. includes the Yangtze Valley. It is cold and damp in winter, warm and damp the rest of the year. The summers are very long, hot and enervating. Plague rarely reaches this section, and then by importation. Probably the active, watchful methods of the Health Authorities at Shanghai have prevented plague from becoming more widespread in that port.

Cholera sweeps over this region whenever it is about; there is plenty of dysentery here, and the types of malaria are abundantly represented. Beri-beri is fairly prevalent, and there are many cases of fluke-worm disease. Rheumatism is very common.

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[1] This article was written for the 1913 edition of the Year Book.

3. *South China.*—From 28° lat. southward. It is sub-tropical, always warm, usually hot and damp. There is no frost or proper winter season here. The most characteristic point in the disease distribution of this division is the prevalence and stability of plague. Malaria is very common, and, in addition, there frequently occur epidemics of cholera, dysentery, measles, smallpox, dengue, and influenza. In this district is included Hongkong, which is a distributing centre for various affections owing to its importation of troops from India and other countries where there are endemic *foci* of tropical diseases.

Tuberculosis.—So much for climatic conditions. Irrespective of these there are, however, diseases which scourge the land throughout its length and breadth. The most prominent is tuberculosis, which is appallingly prevalent, and is fostered by the social customs and conditions of the people, who sleep on *k'angs* and expectorate freely everywhere, in and out of doors, in trains and market-places, etc. The ground soil in many habitations must be freely contaminated with tubercle bacilli, and the domestic fly, so prevalent in warm weather, if not a direct infective agent, is now suspected as a probable transmitter of the disease by contaminating articles of food. Bone and gland tubercular complaints are on the whole more frequently met with than respiratory infection. Tuberculosis is not transmitted in milk, as is often the case in Europe, as this is not a milk-drinking country.

Bowel Affections.—Dysentery and diarrhœa are very common. Typhoid fever occurs among Chinese, but generally in a less severe form than in Europeans. About 90 per cent of the people harbour intestinal parasites. A severe form of gastro-intestinal catarrh occurs with varying frequency in the summer months, more especially in the Yangtze Valley than elsewhere. It has the same symptoms as cholera, and the treatment is the same, the only thing lacking being the presence in the *dejecta* of Koch's comma bacillus, with which true cholera is associated. The name "Clinical Cholera" has been given to it, and this appears to meet the case. The mortality is about 12 per cent, and the disease is not infectious. It usually arises from the ingestion of unripe or over-ripe fruit, or from drinking unboiled water, or eating cold food which has become infected by organisms of the *coli* group that give rise to food poisoning and acute diarrhœa. There were many cases of "Clinical Cholera" during the past summer (1912) in Shanghai, and the prevalence of the complaint led the Japanese Health Authorities to enforce quarantine against all vessels coming from Shanghai as from a cholera port. No sufficient justification for this course has yet been shown, though the Japanese Government were stated by their Consul-General in Shanghai to have found cholera, after medical examinations, in cases which had been traced back to that port. It was not stated, however, that the true virulent cholera germ had been found in them.

Other diseases are malaria, influenza, syphilis, gonorrhœa, beri-beri, leprosy, typhus fever, small-pox, undulant (Malta) fever, furunculosis, and a number of undifferentiated fevers. The foregoing occur with varying frequency, and may be said to be common all over China. Plague is endemic and epidemic south of latitude 28°, but is only met with in its epidemic form north of that line, and arising from imported cases of the disease.

Health of Foreigners.—China has not special climatic dangers for foreigners. If we except sprue, that bugbear of doctors in tropical China, and malaria, as also a few cases of insolation that occur annually, there are very few diseases that cannot be guarded against by following such simple laws of health as those regularly published by Dr. A. Stanley, the Shanghai Medical Officer of Health. These are:—

1. Eat and drink nothing that has not been recently cooked, boiled, or otherwise sterilized.

2. Do not consume fruit, vegetables, salads, melons, etc., which have not been cooked or sterilized; food on which flies have settled; milk or cream which has not been boiled or sterilized; water which has not been boiled or filtered through a Berkefeld filter; aerated waters and other drinks except of best quality; alcoholic drinks during the hot weather; ice-cream, unless made of boiled materials; uncooked oyster; fish, from June to October.

The above are individual measures for the avoidance of all bowel disorders. Prompt isolation and disinfection, sanitary premises, vaccination, and the avoidance of any collections of water wherein mosquitoes could breed are other measures which will go a long way to prevent most of the other diseases that menace foreigners here.

Sprue is a disease which occurs oftener in Shanghai than anywhere else. It still remains an enigma to the medical profession as regards its cause. The two chief symptoms are ulceration of the mouth and a form of diarrhœa. If treated early a cure usually results, but neglected cases nearly all die. It very rarely occurs among Chinese, and its incidence in the foreign population is much greater among females than males. Bodily and mental depression and the presence of other chronic diseases are predisposing factors.

Epidemics.—Taking a general view of epidemics in China, there has been no serious outbreak within the past two years, with the exception of the epidemics of pneumonic plague in Manchuria, and typhus fever among the famine-stricken refugees in the Yangtze Valley. As long as the floods continue and all the hardships they entail, so long will thousands continue to be homeless, hungry, and debilitated. It is among such people that typhus finds a ready prey and carries off numerous victims. It might be well here to note a new parasitic disease called schistosomiasis, which has of late become annually more and more frequent throughout the Yangtze Valley. It is due to a trematode worm (*Schistosomum Japonicum*), and was first observed in China by Dr. Catto in 1904, a few months after its discovery in Japan by Dr. Katsurada. It has been found in foreigners, but occurs mainly in farmers, fishermen, etc.—those who have to wade in water. Its main symptoms are dysentery and progressive abdominal enlargement, anæmia, and emaciation. Last year Drs. Hart and Houghton, writing from Wuhu, stated that in some districts of Anhui province 50 per cent of the farmers were affected.

Public Health.—China has no sanitary laws, no public regard for the national physical well-being, whereby any attempt is made to lower the high sick and mortality rates by a study of the conditions which have brought about the epidemics which sweep the various localities from time to time. To this statement there has been one notable exception, viz. the International Conference at Mukden, in April, 1911, on the subject of pneumonic plague. The suddenness with which this epidemic broke out, and the high death-rate (over 60,000), with the great risk the country ran in the southward spread of this man-to-man fatal infection, as well as the complete dislocation of trade for the time being, made the question sufficiently serious for expert consideration. At the suggestion of the diplomatic body at Peking, the Imperial Government invited the Powers to send representatives to a Conference, and it must be admitted that China played her part well in the facilities she gave for a full inquiry, even to the extent of officially permitting post-mortem examinations (an unprecedented departure from the usual rule). It was hoped that one result of the Congress of so many medical men of high standing would be to give an impetus to the profession of scientific medicine as a calling for many of the better educated young Chinese. But the number of foreign-trained graduates—those who have been educated abroad or in local colleges, which are mostly religious institutions—remains small, and shows no great signs of being augmented. Officialdom, commerce, and engineering are the lines of life which are the most popular. But though public hygiene is so neglected, there are some important factors which are a great asset. The country is fortunate in having good marriage customs, and a high birth-rate. These two factors alone counteract the decline in the numbers of the population, which would otherwise ensue in the absence of any attempt at preventable mortality. An annual series of figures for three consecutive years, made among the female patients at the British Charitable Hospital, Peking, showed an average of 48 per cent deaths of children. Indeed, so common are early deaths, that infant burial by coffining and funeral (as with adults) is a very rare sight in China, the small bodies being simply wrapped in matting and thrown in the public carts which daily make the rounds in cities for that purpose. Most of these child deaths are due to maternal ignorance and carelessness, a prodigality begotten of the high birthrate.

Medical Education.—This is mainly in the hands of medical missionaries. Of those teaching in Chinese only one medical school, the Union Medical College at Peking, has buildings, equipment, and staff which are approximately satisfactory. Most of the others are in process of formation,[1] or are turning out students with a useful medical knowledge, but below the standards of European or American graduates. They include schools at Canton, Changsha, Chengtu, Hankow, Hangchow, Mukden, Nanking, Peking, Tientsin, Tsinanfu, and Wuchang. Of those teaching in English, the medical department of St. John's University at Shanghai is well known. The Universities of Yale, Harvard, and Pennsylvania all plan to start medical schools—that of Harvard is at present the most advanced, and, under Dr. Edwards, is already doing good work. It hopes to make a special feature of public hygiene. At the Army Medical College, Tientsin, the instruction is given by French teachers, in English. A well-equipped German Medical School, with the German language as the teaching medium, has been working in Shanghai for the past few years. There are schools for women students at Canton, Hankow, Nanking, Peking, and Soochow, but taken all round the standard is not a high one, though every endeavour is being made to improve it, and one frequently hears of Chinese female doctors and nurses who are doing excellent work, especially the graduates of the Hackett Medical College for Women, at Canton.

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[1] Since this article was written medical education has made considerable progress. The Union Medical College Hospital (Baptist Mission) at Tsinanfu now ranks as one of the most up-to-date in China. When the buildings now in course of construction are completed the Yale Mission Hospital in Changsha will be the finest in China. The Faculty of Medicine of the Hongkong University carries on the work of the Hongkong College of Medicine, founded in 1887.

There are 265 mission hospitals in China, with a foreign staff of 435 doctors and 112 nurses. The average number of patients, including out-patients, treated annually is 2,250,000.

No medical man can remain long in China without being impressed with the great amelioration in the public health, in the lowering of sick and mortality rates, that would ensue with the general adoption of Western disease preventive methods, and with the great field there yet remains for useful medical research. Most doctors in China are hampered by the pressure of general work from undertaking study and investigation. But that a certain amount is being done can be seen from the pages of the *China Medical Journal*, a bi-monthly periodical (published in Shanghai) which is the organ of the China Medical Missionary Association.

The establishment of a Central Public Health Bureau and Laboratory, with a sufficient and competent scientific staff, is a most urgent desideratum, and one that would be a sound economic investment to the Government in the saving of many thousands of lives of wage-earners and tax-payers, that for want of the slightest knowledge or paternal Government care, are uselessly wasted.

The Revolution and Red Cross Work.—Red Cross work in China began in 1904 during the war between Russia and Japan, when an International Committee was organized, and funds to the amount of £70,000 were collected. Aid was given to the inhabitants of Manchuria who suffered from the war. With the money left at the disposal of the Committee at the close of the war a hospital was established in Shanghai, and its direction was vested entirely in the hands of Chinese. In 1907 the Red Cross Society was recognized by the Chinese Government and the appointment of Sheng Hsuan-huai as President was confirmed. Until the Revolution, the hospital at Shanghai represented the sum-total of the Red Cross activities in China. Not long after the outbreak of hostilities, it was seen that neither the Imperial nor the revolutionary forces were in possession of any adequate medical corps. Shanghai was not long in sending a party under the auspices of the Red Cross Society, mainly on the initiative of Mr. Shen Tun-ho, to the scene of hostilities. This party was led by Dr. S. M. Cox of Shanghai, assisted by Drs. Bennet and Olesen (the latter of whom died from his exertions in the field), and did much good work in the fighting round Hankow and Nanking. The Chinese gentry of Hankow formed a Red Cross Association under the presidency of Dr. J. MacWillie, who was assisted by Dr. R. T. Booth. This Association arranged hospital accommodation, which was freely used by the combatants on both sides. In addition, the Imperial Government at Peking organized a Red Cross Society, which was placed by Imperial Decree under the care of Mr. Lu Hai-huan, a high Government official, with Dr. J. C. Ferguson as Councillor, and the late Dr. J. G. Gibb as Medical Organizer and Superintendent. Well-equipped parties were sent to the front, and Drs. Gibb, W. G. Aspland, F. E. Dilley, G. D. Lowry, H. V. Wenham, J. M. Stenhouse, and E. R. Wheeler were in command of the various bearer companies. At Paotingfu Dr. C. W. Lewis established a Base Hospital, in which he received large numbers of wounded, while in Manchuria a branch of the Society was organized under Dr. D. Christie, C.M.G. As soon as it was seen that fighting was taking place upon a considerable scale, the Japanese Red Cross Society sent from Japan a completely equipped and well-staffed ambulance company. It will thus be seen that foreign medical assistance was freely forthcoming, and though no statistics have been published in a collective form, it is known that several thousand sick and wounded were well attended to under Red Cross rules on the lines laid down by the Geneva Convention. There were also four burial corps at work under the Society's auspices.

During the period of active hostilities there was some difference of opinion among the local branches as to whether the headquarters of the Society were in Shanghai or Peking. The need for prompt action led to organizations being formed which were afterwards found to be more or less at variance, resulting in a certain amount of confusion and overlapping for a few months. This condition was remedied in September, 1912, when an agreement was concluded by representatives of the two leading Societies, by which the Head Office of the President of the Society remains in Peking, and the Central Committee has its office in Shanghai. Such an arrangement will greatly facilitate future work, not only in time of war, but for the medical help so much needed in flood and famine districts. A gratifying feature has been the generous financial assistance given to Red Cross work by Chinese gentry and merchants, the Shanghai Society alone having received subscriptions amounting to over $155,000, the greater part of which came from Chinese residents abroad. A Presidential Mandate issued in October reappointed Lu Hai-huan President of the Society. The Shanghai Conference elected the following officers: *President*, Lu Hai-huan; *Vice-President and Chairman of Central Committee*, Shen Tun-ho; *Counsellor*, J. C. Ferguson; *Secretary*, Feng En-kun; *Director*, Kiang Tsu-fan.

THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION IN CHINA

The interest taken in China by the Rockefeller Foundation Commission will give an impetus to medical education in the country. The members of the Commission (Dr. William H. Welch, President of the Board of Directors of the Rockefeller Institute, one of the leading pathologists in America; Dr. Wallace Butterick, Executive Secretary of the same Board; and Dr. Simon Flexner, a Director) spent about three months in China in 1915. Their object was to prepare the ground for the promotion of modern medical education in China by rendering possible the opening of more medical schools organized on modern lines and financed by the Rockefeller Institute. There are to be also nurses' training schools for Chinese girls, more hospitals with modern equipment, and better chances for Chinese medical school graduates, hospital staffs and missionaries to study medicine and do research work. One of the proposals is to establish a system of pensions that will allow missionaries on furlough to study medicines in American universities.

The China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation has established for Chinese nurses five scholarships of the value of G$300 each. An additional sum of G$400 will be allowed to cover travelling expenses to the U.S.A. and a similar allowance will be made for the return journey. The scholarships are tenable for a year with the possibility of being renewed. Candidates must be graduates of a nurses' training school. Applications to be made to the China Medical Board of the Rockefeller Foundation, 61 Broadway, New York, U.S.A.

THE NORTH MANCHURIAN PLAGUE PREVENTION SERVICE

By the permission of the Powers a portion of the Maritime Customs Revenue of Manchuria, amounting to Roubles 78,000 per annum, was allowed to be diverted from the meeting of loan and indemnity obligations and spent upon the establishment and maintenance of a Government Plague Prevention Service in North Manchuria. The Commissioner of Customs at Harbin is to act as Treasurer.

The Plague Prevention Service has been placed under the control of Dr. Wu Lien-teh, M.A., M.D., B.C. (Cantab.). It is intended to establish five central plague hospitals. Of these four have already been established. The Harbin Hospital has been constructed to meet the requirements outlined by the International Plague Conference. It was erected at a cost of Tls. 50,000. It contains quarantine, suspect, and plague wards for males and females, accommodation being provided for 30 plague cases, 20 suspects, and 250 contacts. Up to the end of 1913, 10,169 patients suffering from diseases of a general character had been treated.

The Lahasusu Hospital was completed in November, 1912, and has been used as a general hospital since October 15, 1912. This hospital is situated in a prominent position at the bend of the River Sungari just before its junction with the River Amur. It consists of a two-storied building for the medical officer above, and an out-patient department below, as well as separate quarantine, plague, and suspect blocks. The hospital has accommodation for 42 in-patients.

The Sansing Hospital was officially opened on June 17, 1914, but patients had been treated since June, 1913. The hospital, comprising six separate blocks, has accommodation for 60 patients.

The Taheiho Hospital was officially declared open on July 19, 1914, but had received patients since October, 1913. It is a two-storied building, on the ground floor of which laboratories, out-patient departments, operation room, and dispensary; on the upper floor are the living quarters of the medical officers. There are two isolation blocks capable of accommodating twelve patients each. Two medical officers, one a woman, are stationed at Taheiho.

Dr. Wu Lien-teh, the Director and Chief Medical Officer of the service, was in charge of the work at Harbin during the pneumonic plague epidemic of 1910–11, and also acted as Chairman of the International Plague Conference

The following is a summary of Dr. Wu Lien-teh's sixth Annual General Report for the year ending September, 1918 :—

PLAGUE

From December 13 onwards reports reached Peking from missionaries resident in Mongolia that an epidemic resembling pneumonic plague had broken out in that region. I was instructed by the Foreign Office and the Ministry of Interior to proceed to the spot and investigate. I left Peking on January 2 of this year and, travelling by the Peking-Kalgan-Suiyuan Railway, reached Fengchen, the terminal station, the next evening. The weather was cold and facilities were scarce, but I found no difficulty in definitely diagnosing pneumonic plague in a passenger who was on the point of leaving Fengchen railway station for the South. Apparently the epidemic had already reached the northern terminus of the Peking-Kalgan Railway, and the Government wisely took immediate steps to stop the traffic on the line. But the disease had already made considerable headway elsewhere, for the cart routes from the infected regions southwards and eastwards were unguarded and several towns in Mongolia, Suiyuan, Shansi, and Chihli were attacked. Thanks to the energetic action taken by the Minister of Interior, headed by Vice-Minister Yu Pao-hsuan and by Tuchun Yen Hsi-san of Shansi, who called in medical aid from all sources, the epidemic was finally stamped out in April with the loss of 15,000 lives.

So far as our information went, the epidemic started in the neighbourhood of the small town of Patsebolong in Southern Mongolia, travelled eastwards to Pao-t'ouchen and Saratsi, then invaded Suiyuan and Kweihua, from which it spread later on eastwards to Fengchen, Tatungfu and the railways, and southwards to Soping, Tsoyun, Sochow, through the Great Wall into Taichow, Hsinchow, and neighbourhood of the capital city of Taiyuanfu. Isolated cases also occurred afterwards in Hsuanhuafu, Peking, Pengpu, Chenting, and even Nanking on the south of the Yangtze River.

Altogether a vast area of ground was covered, comprising eight provinces (Southern Mongolia, Suiyuan, Chahar, Shansi, Chihli, Shantung, Anhui, Kiangsu) and five railway lines (Peking-Suiyuan, Chenting-Taiyuan, Peking-Mukden, Peking-Hankow and Tientsin-Pukow).

It is interesting to note that in this, as in the great Manchurian plague of 1910–11, the epidemic started in the waste regions of Mongolia towards the end of autumn and disappeared at the approach of spring. No rodents or insects played any part in its transmission, which was done purely through the breath passing from one sick person to another. Further research will probably prove that the early cases occurred among settlers in those portions of Mongolia which have been marked as endemic centres of the disease.

During the height of the epidemic in Shansi, a rumour reached Harbin that suspicious cases had occurred on January 29 at Tsitsihar, capital of Heilungkiang Province. We at once despatched Medical Officer Ling Ting-fan and assistants to the spot to investigate. The Chinese Eastern Railway also sent Dr. Askanoff to co-operate with us, and after some days both doctors were able to wire that no plague was present in the region mentioned.

While on this matter, it may be interesting to note that about the same time five cases of undoubted pulmonary plague were discovered at Ipswich in the county of Suffolk, England. Adequate precautions were immediately taken, and the threatened epidemic was soon stamped out.

INFLUENZA

The early days of spring brought another rapidly spreading, but fortunately less serious, epidemic in the form of influenza (*La Grippe*), which was first recognized by us in Harbin in the first week of April. More than half of the inhabitants (Chinese and Russian) were attacked. Fortunately the majority of cases were mild, and no deaths were reported. One of the most serious seen by us was that of one of our medical officers, who experienced sore throat, severe headache, high fever, profuse running from the nose, bronchitis and aching pains all over the body leaving him weak for two weeks afterwards. From Harbin the epidemic spread in all directions and followed the usual routes of travel by land and sea, and soon reached Peking, Tientsin, Shanghai, Canton, and even some tropical regions. Apparently this epidemic is the same as that prevailing in Europe, known as the Spanish disease, which has caused much havoc among soldiers and civilians. It is acknowledged in Germany that over 180,000 of her soldiers caught the disease this year. One interesting fact ascertained from this world-wide infection is that the characteristic microbe (bacillus of Pfeiffer), hitherto regarded as the cause of influenza, has been found in only 10 per cent. of the cases examined. The disease at this moment of writing is still prevalent in Harbin, Peking, Japan, and Vladivostok.

Like scarlet fever, influenza appears to have been introduced into China within recent years, and the Government will do well to bear in mind that, although mild at present, it may, unless the necessary hygienic precautions are adopted, take a virulent form in the course of years, as has been the case of scarlet fever.

Owing to the political troubles in Russia, and the influx of all classes of people into Manchuria, many kinds of insect-borne diseases have been admitted into our hospitals. Among these, typhus exanthematicus and relapsing fever, both caused by the body louse, were predominant. Two of our Customs Officers stationed at Suifenho were attacked by the former and one died. Cases of typhus were quite common during the summer months—usually in a milder form. Of twenty-five Chinese soldiers admitted for this ailment into our Harbin hospital, only one died.

Cases of smallpox were also treated in the spring, but these are not exceptional as compared with preceding years.

No sign of bubonic or pulmonary plague has been seen throughout Manchuria, thus making 1918 the eighth clear year so far as this dread disease is concerned.

THE BOLSHEVIK OUTBREAK

Severe disturbances occurred at Blagovestchensk in March, during which much killing and plundering were noticed. Our Medical Officer at Taheiho, situated just on the other side of the River Amur, reported that for over a month our hospital was used as a Red Cross institution for the wounded and homeless, who received all the kindness and attention we could offer. It was fortunate we had an adequate medical staff stationed so near the scene of disturbances, for every case admitted received satisfactory treatment.

The present unsettled conditions caused by Bolshevik and enemy propaganda in North Manchuria and Siberia have resulted in the despatch of Chinese, Japanese, and allied forces to these regions since the beginning of this year. Chinese troops are now guarding various stations on the Chinese Eastern Railway from Changchun northwards, while soldiers of the other Allies have helped the Czecho-Slovaks in freeing the country from Vladivostok westwards as far as the Urals. The want of suitable accommodation has been much felt by all parties in Harbin.

Since the American Red Cross Society in Siberia has officially undertaken the organization of the Medical Service for the Czecho-Slovaks, we have written to Dr. R. B. Teusler, head of the American Red Cross Society operating in these parts, offering them the use of part of our hospitals at Harbin, Lahasusu, Sansing, and Taheiho for their work in case of necessity.

In the meantime, I am glad to state that the Japanese Military Red Cross working in the Amur regions asked for and obtained from us permission to use one of the three main blocks of buildings of our new Taheiho Hospital. Such practical co-operation will, I am sure, prove beneficial to the cause of the Allies.

Another result of the internal troubles in Russia has been the rise in price of land, house-rent, and all commodities caused by the escape of wealthy refugees into these parts. The house-rents of our office and quarters for our medical officers have been raised tenfold, and we are not sure the limit has been reached. To avoid further trouble I decided, after consultation with the Lay Director, to purchase a suitable piece of land in the New Town lying on the highway now being laid between the Chinese city and New Town. The price paid for the lot was Rs. 45,666·94, corresponding to $4,500.

FOUR YEARS' WORK

The second Scientific Report of the Service, covering the years 1914–17, was published last December in English and Chinese by the *Peking Gazette* Press. It comprises most of the work we have been doing during the last four years, and includes various articles dealing with our researches on plague and other medical subjects which appeared in different scientific journals, such as *British Journal of Hygiene*, *American Journal of Infectious Diseases*, *Journal of Rockefeller Institute*, *Modern Hospital* (America), *China Medical Journal*, *National Medical Journal*, etc. This publication has been sent to many technical libraries and been favourably received in all scientific quarters.

Our Research Department has continued its labours during the past year. As usual we have been consulted by the authorities on sanitary improvements, analyses of pills, water, patent medicines, etc. Our work is, however, handicapped by the want of suitable laboratory accommodation, for the present buildings were hurriedly erected eight years ago, soon after the plague, and are too cold in winter for continuous investigation. We are planning to construct next spring a more satisfactory hospital for this special work. We have already postponed building operations twice on account of increased cost due to the war, but labour and cost of materials are still rising and it is inadvisable to delay the matter further.

I attended the Conference of the Japanese Medical Association of South Manchuria, held at Tairen on September 22–23 of this year, and delivered an address of welcome from the National Medical Association and the China Medical and Pharmaceutical Society.

Remarkable progress has been made by our Japanese colleagues during the last ten years both in hospital administration and research work. In the domain of nursing I believe they are second to none.

At the invitation of the Taoyin and the Commissioner of Customs of Yingkow District I paid two visits this year to Newchwang in order to consult with them regarding the establishment of a quarantine hospital in that port. Outbreaks of bubonic plague and cholera have already occurred there and are ever threatening the safety of the trade and its inhabitants. We therefore considered such a hospital most essential and jointly despatched a memorandum to the Central authorities requesting its establishment.

WORK OF HOSPITALS

The number of out-patients treated at the different hospitals in 1917–18 are set down in the following table as compared with preceding years :—

	1917	1916	1915	1914	1913
Harbin . .	10,501	10,652	14,587	19,395	19,167
Taheiho . .	6,394	6,847	7,173	7,231	7,548
Sansing . .	4,046	3,740	3,693	3,684	4,139
Lahasusu . .	1,089	1,018	1,221	1,338	1,830

These figures do not include Customs, Post Office, Government employees, and private patients. The number of in-patients treated at Harbin Hospital was 470, the majority of whom were surgical.

The following comprises the principal personnel of the Service during the past year :—

Dr. Wu Lien-teh, Director and Chief Medical Officer.

Mr. P. Grevedon (Commissioner of Customs), Lay Director and Treasurer.

Dr. Chun Wing-hon, Senior Medical Officer, Harbin.

Dr. Fred Eberson, Bacteriologist to the Service working at the Rockefeller Institute, New York ; now temporarily detached for war work in America.

Dr. Tang Tsung-nien, Resident Medical Officer, Sansing.

Dr. Lin Chia-sui, Resident Medical Officer, Taheiho.

Dr. Ling Ting-fan, Assistant Medical Officer, Harbin.

Dr. Shih Chi-liang, Assistant Medical Officer, Harbin.

Dr. Hubert A. Kwan, Resident Medical Officer, Lahasusu ; joined the Service on October 1, 1918 ; temporarily stationed at Harbin.

Mrs. Chen Chin-tsai, Deputy Female Medical Officer.

Miss Chen Chi-ching, Sister-in-Charge, Harbin Hospital.

Mrs. Hsu Shu-tung, Matron, Harbin Hospital ; joined the Service on June 1, 1918.

Mr. Chow Yu, Senior Dresser-in-Charge, Lahasusu.

HARBIN'S WATER SUPPLY

The signs of prosperity both in the Chinese and Russian towns of Harbin, to which I drew attention in my 1917 Report, have steadily increased during the past year. New houses and factories are being continually put up and fabulous sums are paid for land and houses. The Russian population has doubled itself, while the Chinese have trebled in number during the last four years. A pure general water supply system for this large population of nearly 200,000 is urgently needed in place of the unsatisfactory individual wells which cost nearly Rs. 10,000 each to construct. With such a large river as the Sungari near by an unlimited supply of water is easily procurable.

Similar signs of prosperity are noticeable in all the towns lying along the railway and situated on the Sungari and Amur Rivers, where large tracts have been opened up and cultivated. We are still waiting for a macadamized road to be constructed from the main thoroughfare of Fuchiatien to our hospital so as to facilitate the transport of patients. As matters stand at present the road leading to Harbin Hospital is impassable in wet weather to all except pedestrians, who use the narrow, rickety, wooden footpaths lying on either side of the road.

Medicine in China

In spite of the lessons of the past and the wonderful achievements of modern medicine which this great war has brought forth, the majority of our people are still unwilling to put their complete faith in scientific medicine. Our authorities are not yet alive to the urgent needs of a scientific and technical education, and whatever efforts made hitherto have been of a spasmodic character. I earnestly hope that when the Powers other than America and Japan decide to return the balance of the Boxer Indemnity, amounting to tens of millions of pounds sterling, a considerable sum of money will be earmarked for the noble purpose of medical education, preventive medicine, and hospital development, without which no country may be called progressive. Our nation is backward because the minds and bodies of her citizens are backward, and only a proper understanding of scientific thought as exemplified in the practice of modern hygiene can alleviate it.

The Peking Central Hospital, which was formally opened on January 27, 1918, may be regarded as one of the many undertakings required to keep this country abreast of the times.

PLAGUE IN MANCHURIA

Plague broke out in Manchuria at the end of 1910, and the number of deaths is estimated at between 50,000 and 60,000. During the progress of the epidemic the Chinese Government invited other nations to send delegates to an International Conference on the subject of the plague. The Conference, which was held at Mukden from April 3 to April 28, 1911, was attended by twenty-seven delegates, representing eleven countries (China included). Sao-Ke Alfred Sze was appointed High Commissioner to the Conference, and the deliberations took place under the presidency of Dr. Wu Lien-teh.

The Conference submitted the following report, dated April 28, 1911:—

Interim Report of the International Plague Conference

Provisional Conclusions from the Evidence Submitted to the Conference

1. From Northern Mongolia the epidemic followed a clearly defined course eastwards and southwards, its diffusion having been principally determined by routes of travel, especially railways, roads, and shipping. The disease spread by direct infection from man to man, and whatever may have been its primary origin, there is no evidence that a concurrent epizootic in rodents played any part in its general dissemination.

2. The chief factor in the decline of the epidemic has probably been the preventive measures which were enforced either in accordance with scientific methods or by the crude efforts of the people to protect themselves. Climatic influences may have contributed indirectly, or even directly, towards bringing the epidemic to an end, but the evidence presented on these points is inconclusive. The decline had not been due to any loss of virulence of the bacillus.

3. Infection was introduced into towns and villages by persons actually suffering from the plague or by those in the incubation stage of the disease.

4. There has been no positive epidemiological evidence to show that infection has been spread by clothing, merchandise, or other inanimate objects.

5. Overcrowding has undoubtedly contributed to the spread of the disease within houses by multiplying the chances of infection.

6. The epidemic has been almost without exception one of primary pneumonic plague. The incubation period varies as a rule from two to five days. A rise in temperature and an increased pulse-rate are usually the earliest symptoms observable, but a diagnosis cannot be made until the specific bacilli have been recognized in the sputum or until the sputum has become characteristically blood-stained. An accurate diagnosis can be made only by a bacteriological examination of the sputum, with the view of excluding pneumonic infections due to other micro-organisms. Since the evidence points to the conclusion that in the past epidemic all the cases became septicæmic, an examination of the blood, microscopically or culturally, may be a valuable aid in diagnosis.

The physical signs of lung involvement are too indefinite and appear too late in the course of the disease to be of diagnostic value, and even in cases in which the condition of the patient is grave they may be very slight.

7. The fatality of the disease during the past epidemic has been extremely high, scarcely any cases of recovery having been reported.

8. The general experience has been that no method of treatment has been of any avail in saving life, but the serum treatment seems in a few instances to have prolonged the duration of the illness, and even one or two cases of cure have been attributed to its use.

9. The strain of bacillus isolated during the past epidemic has differed in no essential respect from the strains of the *bacillus pestis* previously isolated from other sources.

10. So far as can be ascertained, the only infective agent in the epidemic has been the sputum of the plague patient. In the majority of cases the disease has been contracted by the inhalation of plague bacilli in droplets of sputum, causing infection of the lower portion of the trachea and the bronchi.

11. In the case of infection by inhalation, the risk to the person exposed bears a direct relation to his proximity to the patient and the duration of exposure.

Resolutions

1. The past epidemic arose in a region which has been associated for years with outbreaks of pneumonic and bubonic plague, but sufficient evidence is not forthcoming with regard to its precise origin.

2. From Russian medical sources it has been reported that an epizootic disease exists among tarbagans, and that it is not unlikely that this disease is plague, but that it is plague has never yet been proved bacteriologically.

3. There is no definite evidence to show that the first cases of this epidemic were caused by infection from sick tarbagans. Nevertheless, there is strong presumption for believing that tarbagan disease is closely associated with pneumonic plague in Manchuria, Trans-Baikalia, and North-East Mongolia, and therefore with the recent outbreak.

4. Systematic investigations should be made as to whether epizootic disease occurs among tarbagans and other rodents, and if such exists an accurate investigation should be made of the nature of the infection.

5. Such investigations should be made under the direction of someone who has had special experience in the examination of rodents for plague infection; and the investigation should include the complete anatomical and bacteriological examination of these animals, with the careful identification of any organisms encountered.

6. Provision should be made for the discovery of disease among these rodents, and for their early transmission to the investigators.

7. The two countries principally interested (China and Russia) should separately assume responsibility for carrying out such investigations.

8. Arrangements should be made for bringing the tarbagan trapping community in Manchouli district under a system of medical supervision, particularly during the trapping season, and a segregation station and hospital should be established at the headquarters of this community.

9. The question of the occurrence of pneumonic plague in mules, donkeys, and dogs should be made the subject of special study with regard to their liability to this infection. Although instances in these animals have been reported, the subject needs further study.

10. A general improvement in the sanitary condition of cities and villages, especially with regard to overcrowding, is desirable. As soon as it shall become practicable, death certification, and notification of infectious disease by medical practitioners, educated according to modern standards, should be instituted.

11. When sporadic cases of pneumonic plague arise, the following measures should be put into operation, namely:

(*a*) Compulsory isolation of plague patients, suspected cases and contacts; plague patients and suspect cases should wear proper masks.

(*b*) Notification of sick persons and of dead bodies found in houses or streets, by house-to-house visitation. Bacteriological and, when practicable, pathological diagnosis should be made. A proper system of death registration should be established. A search for plague cases and corpses in the vicinity of towns and villages is important.

(*c*) Education of the public by lectures and the issue of pamphlets and handbills explaining preventive measures in simple language.

12. When the disease has assumed epidemic proportions the following additional measures are desirable, namely:

(*a*) The establishment of sanitary cordons when desirable, combined with strict medical inspection and quarantine for five days.

(*b*) As the aggregation of potentially infective units should, as far as possible, be limited, schools, churches, theatres, market-places, etc., should be closed. Inns, tea-houses, and night refuges for beggars should be under very close inspection, as they have been shown to furnish most of the cases. Factories should be closed unless arrangements can be made for the employees to live, under supervision, in or near the factory.

(*c*) Tramcars constitute a danger by bringing about an aggregation of potentially infective units, but ricksha and cart traffic need not be stopped.

(*d*) Where a particular section of a community is alone infected, or is more severely infected than another, it is desirable to restrict the inhabitants to that particular section, and to prevent ingress from other parts of the community, so as to limit infection; and, in very severe epidemics, to divide communities into sections, to segregate the inhabitants in each section, and to enforce quarantine regulations.

13. The need for isolation of pneumonic plague patients being urgent, permanent isolation hospitals should be available. Such isolation hospitals should admit of individual isolation, be of rat-proof construction, and be capable of easy disinfection. In the grounds of such isolation hospitals ample space should be provided for the construction of additional emergency wards, for which purpose the site should be prepared and foundations laid. The provision of ample air-space and light is desirable.

14. The hospital accommodation for suspected cases of plague should be adjacent to the hospital for plague cases, and the need for individual isolation being specially important, in order to prevent the infection of non-infected suspects, a separate room should be provided for each patient. No patient should be transferred from the suspect hospital to the plague hospital until a positive diagnosis of plague has been made.

15. Contact quarantine stations should be so constructed and managed as to secure early detection of cases of plague, and as far as possible, individual separation; and the same principles should apply to the construction and management of segregation stations for certain classes of the community, and for immigrants.

16. The best system would be the cubicle box system.

17. Clothing and bedding of the patient should be thoroughly disinfected by steam, boiling, or prolonged soaking in a disinfectant solution. If of no value they should be burnt.

Clothing and bedding of contacts should be disinfected by steam, or by boiling, or by spraying thoroughly with disinfectant. Articles that would be spoiled by such treatment may be disinfected with formalin vapour, or dried by dry heat and exposed to the sun for three days; the whole surface must be exposed in turn.

18. Houses must be disinfected in the following manner:

They should be sealed up for a few hours, immediately after removal of the patient or the corpse.

Search should be made with a good light for visible contamination with blood, sputum, etc. Such contaminated matter must be forthwith disinfected, or removed and burnt.

The house must then be sprayed and swabbed with a disinfectant solution. Slaked lime may be spread evenly on a mud floor. When a house can be rendered airtight, fumigation with formalin may be employed.

Cars may be disinfected in the same way as houses, or by steam.

The disinfection of furniture may be included in that of the house, or be carried out by fumigation and exposure to sun. The spittoon must be thoroughly disinfected. The k'ang mat and all rubbish should be burnt.

House-burning should not be carried out where it is found reasonably possible to disinfect.

19. Articles of trade, except rags and old clothes, need not be disinfected unless they are known to have been exposed to infection.

20. For the disinfection of sputum, carbolic acid, if possible with soap, or alkaline coal-tar products (cresols) are recommended. Many satisfactory preparations of cresols are sold under special names, but no proprietary disinfectant should be adopted until its potency and properties have been scientifically investigated.

Other useful disinfectants are chloride of lime, slaked lime, formalin, and perchloride of mercury (the last not to be employed for sputum).

21. To make these measures of disinfection effective, it is of the utmost

importance that there should be a sufficiently large body of trained men to carry them out; and the best method of securing this object is to set up in every provincial capital a permanent establishment and disinfecting staff.

22. Plague corpses, when found, should be wrapped in coarse sheets, soaked in sublimate solution, and removed in special metal-lined covered carts, provided for this purpose.

The burial staff should be provided with blunt iron hooks to facilitate the removal of corpses.

In view of the length of time during which plague corpses may remain infective, the quickest, safest, and most economical method for their disposal is complete cremation with wood and kerosene oil, in special pits prepared for the purpose, and situated at a convenient distance from the town or village affected.

23. There should be in each administrative district a permanent nucleus, consisting of a medical and sanitary staff, capable of rapid expansion, ready for dealing with any outbreak of plague that may occur.

So far as possible a uniform system of sanitary administration should be prescribed for all districts.

The quarters for the sanitary staff should be isolated under the best practicable conditions.

24. Until further statistics are available the sanitary staff should be inoculated, so far as practicable, with plague vaccine before commencing their duties.

At the same time, in view of the special danger of infection by inhalation that has been manifest during the past epidemic, the sanitary staff should be provided with masks of uniform pattern, and instructed in their proper use.

The best form of mask is a simple three-tailed gauze and cotton-wool pad, which should be destroyed, or disinfected, after each tour of duty.

The sanitary staff should also be provided with gloves and overalls, which should be of impermeable material, and those in immediate contact with the patients should wear goggles in addition to the above.

On coming off duty each member of the staff should take a bath, and his working clothes should be disinfected at the sanitary station.

The sanitary staff should be medically inspected, and their temperature taken twice daily.

25. The statistical evidence points to the conclusion that some degree of protection is conferred against bubonic plague by the use of vaccines.

26. Therefore there are a priori grounds for the use of inoculation with vaccines as a means of protection against pneumonic plague.

27. The statistics which have been collected during this past epidemic do not allow us to come to any definite conclusion about the value of active prophylactic inoculation against plague pneumonia.

28. Many methods proposed for producing immunity against plague have been considered by this Conference; of these some have been already largely used on human beings; others are still under trial.

(*a*) *Those already largely used are:*

- I. Dead bacilli vaccines (*a*) Bouillon cultures.
  - (*b*) Agar cultures.
- II. Nucleo-proteid vaccines.
- III. Mixed dead bacilli and serum, combined.

b) *Those under trial:*

- I. Living attenuated cultures.
- II. Living cultures and serum, combined.

29. Dead bacillary vaccines can be simply prepared, and in one form or another have been extensively used in different parts of the world. There is a considerable amount of evidence to the effect that preparations of this kind can confer some degree of protection against bubonic plague, and the method of agar culture affords some advantage in respect of quickness of preparation, and it is the opinion of the majority of this Conference that killed cultures represent at the present time the simplest, safest, and best method of vaccination against plague, and this opinion is expressed without prejudice to the use of other methods of vaccination, or vaccination combined with serum-prophylactic, should such be proved to offer great advantage.

30. *Lustig and Galeotti's vaccine.* This preparation seems to have given excellent results experimentally on animals, and can be as safely used as other vaccines. It has the advantage that without losing its properties it can be conveniently stored in a dried form.

31. *Strong's method.* This is worthy of careful consideration. The results obtained by experiments on animals and on human beings are so striking as to make it important to collect more evidence as to the safety of the method as a practical prophylactic on a large scale.

32. We offer the following advice:—

(i) That experiments on animals (guinea-pigs, white rats, and monkeys) should be carried on by the method of inhalation, in order to find out which vaccine can be best used against pneumonic plague.

(ii) That should another outbreak of pneumonic plague occur the above methods of vaccination should be tried in selected communities (as in India) under rigorous scientific conditions.

33. Concerted action between the different railway companies of Manchuria and North China should be promoted, so as to bring about a uniform system of sanitary defence on all railway lines. With this object a Joint Railway Medical Board for quarantine and sanitary purposes only, having a central office, should be formed by the railway companies concerned, to frame regulations for the control of traffic in time of epidemic prevalence of plague or other diseases.

34. There is evidence before the Conference of want of uniformity in the action of different port authorities in respect of quarantine measures, and there are grounds for believing that in some instances the stringency or otherwise of quarantine measures in ports is left to the individual initiative of medical officers in different ports. So far as may be practicable, a uniform international system of port sanitary administration and quarantine for North China should be brought about by co-operation between the Imperial Government of China and the other nations concerned. Such administration should follow the lines of the Convention of Paris, 1903, so far as they are applicable.

35. With a view to systemizing, in epidemic periods, the control of traffic both by land and sea, the above-named Joint Railway Medical Board should, so far as may be practicable, act in concert with the above-named International Port Sanitary Service.

36. To facilitate the control of coolie traffic by land and sea, inducements should be offered to travelling coolies to journey by rail, and by recognized steamer lines, and the regulations devised should be such as to combine the maximum of efficacy in respect of controlling the spread of disease with the minimum of restriction of travel.

37. In times of epidemic prevalence of plague there should be supervision of travellers by road and of cart traffic by the magistrates and officials of towns and villages in the affected districts, together with inspection and supervision of inns,

poor-houses, etc. Travellers by road should be furnished with sanitary passes, which must be endorsed at the yamens of the places through which they pass.

38. In view of the fact that coolies and other travellers are known to land from junks and open boats at points along the coast-line other than the recognized ports, there should be closer sanitary supervision than heretofore of the coast-line of the Gulf of Pechili in time of plague, and there should also be sanitary supervision of traffic on rivers.

39. The evidence before the Conference is to the effect that it is unnecessary and undesirable in respect of pneumonic plague to restrict the transit of goods (other than personal luggage) and of mails.

Should there be evidence at any subsequent time of an epizootic in rats, it would become necessary to take measures to secure the destruction of rats on ships and in ports, and to guard against the passage of rats from shore to ships, or from ships to shore. In this event it might also become necessary to frame special regulations in respect of cargoes containing grain or other cargoes likely to attract rats.

40. In time of plague the carriage or shipment of corpses should be prohibited.

41. A Plague Code should be forthwith drawn up, embodying complete regulations and instructions to all officials concerned, applicable on the outbreak of plague.

42. A permanent sanitary nucleus should be formed, capable of rapid expansion in time of plague, and a list should be drawn up of medical officers who could be immediately sent to the affected area on the outbreak of plague.

43. Means should be devised to instruct the public that plague regulations are made in the public interest and for the protection of the whole people.

44. With the view of giving effect to these recommendations every endeavour should be made to organize a Central Public Health Department, more especially with regard to the management and notification of future outbreaks of infectious diseases.

45. In furtherance of the above purposes every effort should be made to secure effective medical education in China.

THE NATIONAL MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

The Chinese National Medical Association formed in 1915 (President, Dr. F. C. Yen, Surgeon-in-Chief of the Hunan-Yale Hospital, Changsha), held its first annual conference in Shanghai, February 7–12, 1916. The following officers were elected for the year 1916 :—

Executive Committee.—President, Wu Lien-teh, M.A., M.D.(Cantab); Vice-Presidents, C. Voonping Yui, M.D., D.P.H.; F. Lih, M.D.; Treasurer, E. S. Tyau, M.D., D.P.H.(Phil.); Secretaries, H. Abel Tang, M.D., W. B. New, M.D.(Harvard); Business Manager, Dr. T. K. M. Siau.

Sub-Committees.—Editors, Drs. Wu Lien-teh and J. H. Liu (English); Drs. C. V. Yui and E. H. Tang (Chinese). Membership, Drs. S. F. Lee, Cheng Ho, S. P. Chen, (Miss) L. Y. Tsao, W. S. New, F. T. Kiang, G. Char, and K. C. Wong. Terminology, Drs. C. V. Yui, Chow Kuei, N. A. Tang, and J. H. Liu. Public Health, Drs. F. C. Yen, Wu Lien-teh, and E. S. Tyau.

It was decided by the Conference that the journal of the Association should be a quarterly publication in Chinese and English.

Resolutions were passed petitioning the Government :—

1. To take proper steps for the registration of practitioners of western medicine and of drug-shops selling foreign medicines.

2. To establish a Central Medical Board in Peking, consisting of representatives from the Government and principal medical institutions, with powers to fix the medical curriculum, grant licences, and to supervise examinations throughout the country.

3. To take steps to check the spread of tuberculosis and venereal diseases among all classes of the population.

4. To establish a Public Health Service without delay throughout the country.

5. To grant at least ten scholarships to students of medicine from the Indemnity Fund.

CHAPTER XXIII

WHO'S WHO[1]

AMUERHLINGKUEI.—Mongol. Prince of First Order, December, 1891. Great-grandson of Prince Seng-ko-lin-ch'in. Lieutenant-General of Bordered White Chinese Banner, January, 1910. Superintendent of Peking Octroi, February, 1912. Member for Mongolia of the National Council.

CHAN T'IEN-YU.—Kuangtung. Educated in America. Expectant Taotai. Engineer-in-Chief, Peking–Kalgan Railway, 1905. Managing Director, Canton–Hankow Railway, October 10. Assistant Director, ditto, July 31, 1912. Expert Inspector, Ministry of Communications, June 18, 1913.

CHANG CHEN-FANG.—Honan. A cousin of the President. Tientsin Taotai, December, 1907. Salt Commissioner at Tientsin, February, 1908. Seconded to assist Ministry of Finance in connection with the Patriotic Loan, January, 1912. Was appointed Acting Tutuh of Chihli in February, 1912. where he was denounced by the gentry. Acting Tutuh of Honan, March, 1912. Subs. do., October 28, 1912. Director-General of the Coal Mining Co. of Liuhokou, Honan. Appointed to the Council of Regency on the abortive restoration of the Manchu dynasty, July, 1917.

CHANG CHENG-HSUN.—Member of Tsanchengyuan. Organiser of motor-bus service in Peking.

CHANG CHI.—President, High Court of Justice, Anhui.

CHANG CHIEN.—Kiangsu. A noted Hanlin scholar (Optimus), who declined to take office (except that of Adviser to the Board of Commerce, 1904) in order to devote his energies to the fostering of industry and commerce. Appointed "Pacificator" in Kiangsu, November, 1911. He was offered, but refused, the post of Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry in Yuan Shih-kai's November Cabinet. He is also reported to have been offered, and to have refused, the Premiership, after Tang Shao-yi's resignation. During 1911 he was engaged upon schemes for the promotion of commerce in Manchuria, and the formation of Sino-American commercia enterprises. Director-General Huai-ho Conservancy, March 13

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[1] For some of these biographical notices the authors are indebted to Mr. H. Phillips for permission to incorporate data from the "List of the Higher Metropolitan and Provincial Authorities of China."

1913. Minister of Industry and Commerce and temporary Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, September 11, 1913. Director-General of the National Conservancy Bureau, 1915. Member of the Tsanchengyuan, 1915. "Friend of Sungchan" (see Hsu Shih-chang).

CHANG CHIH-HSIANG.—Szechuan. Age 30. A Graduate of a Law College in Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Joined Tungmenhui, 1906. Attempted to raise revolution in Chengtu, but was arrested when the attempt failed, 1908; and when the independence of Szechuan was declared he was released and appointed as delegate for the amalgamation of the War Offices of Chengtu and Chungking, and then Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, Szechuan. Resigned 1913, when elected as member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHANG CHIN-YAO.—General. Tuchun of Hunan, 1917.

CHANG EN-SHOU.—Chihli. Born 1880. A Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Member of various committees in Chinputang. At the end of Ching Dynasty he was a clerk to Yuchuanpu. During the Revolution he organized the Pao An Hui in Tientsin. In August, 1912, he was appointed director of the Law School, Tientsin, and under his management until January, 1913, there was an increase of students from 400 to 1200. Translated several Japanese books into Chinese.

CHANG FENG-TAI.—Head of Finance Department, Honan, January 19, 1913. Chief Civil Administrator, Honan, July 5, 1913.

CHANG FU-YUAN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. Graduate of Japanese University. After returning from Japan he was teacher to several Law Schools in Chekiang. During Revolution he was made Chief of the Civil Department and Acting Chief of the Department of Justice, 1912. A member of the Tsan Yi Yuan. Editor of certain periodicals and a lawyer. Chinputang.

CHANG HSI-LUAN.—Honan. Formerly Taotai at Mukden. Acting Commissioner of Finance, Mukden, August, 1907. Substantive Commissioner of Finance, January, 1908. Governor of Shansi, November, 1911. From March to August, 1912, was Tutuh of Chihli. In August was appointed Commissioner for the Pacification of the Western Frontier of Manchuria. Appointed Acting Tutuh of Fengtien, November 3, on the resignation of Chao Erh-hsün. Substantive ditto, November 16, 1912. Additional Acting Tutuh of Kirin, June 13, 1913. Chiangchun of Hupeh, 1915. Field-Marshal, December, 1915.

CHANG HSUN.—Kiangsi. An old-type military officer. Brigade-General, Ningyuanfu, Szechuan, 1904. Commander-in-Chief, Yunnan, February, 1908, but did not proceed. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, September, 1908. Commander-in-Chief of the Kiangnan forces, 1911, with headquarters at Nanking, and permission to wear the Yellow Jacket. Was in command at Nanking when that city was attacked by the revolutionary forces, and effected a masterly retreat to the northern bank of the river, although he had no warships at his disposal. Thereafter he commandeered practically all the available rolling stock of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway, using it as a portable camp for his forces. Though barbarously severe, he won universal admiration by the manner in which he preserved discipline among his forces, and peace and order in the neighbourhood in which he encamped. He was made Viceroy of the Liang-Kiang provinces as an inducement to reconquer them for the Imperial family. He continued to occupy important points upon the Tientsin-Pukow Railway for months after the abdication of the Manchus, although offered commands in Tibet and elsewhere. Full General, July 17, 1913. Pacificator of Kiangsu, July 19, 1913. Recaptured Nanking, September 1. Appointed Tutuh of Kiangsu. Owing to the outrages of his troops had to apologize to Japanese Consul at Nanking. Succeeded by Feng Kuo-chang. Appointed Field-Marshal and High Inspector of the Yangtze provinces, 1915. Summoned by President Li Yuan-hung to Peking in June, 1917, he insisted on the dissolution of Parliament, and subsequently proclaimed the restoration of the Manchu dynasty. His troops were immediately overwhelmed. Chang Hsun took refuge in the Dutch Legation (July 12), where he remained until he was pardoned by President Hsu Shih-chang, Oct. 23, 1918.

CHANG HU.—Salt Commissioner, Changlu (Chihli), May, 1912. Salt Commissioner, Liang Huai, November 14, 1912. Vice-Minister of Finance, September 14, 1913. Chief of Central Salt Administration. Dismissed June 21, 1915.

CHANG HUNG CH'UAN.—Hunan. Born 1878. A Graduate of the Normal School of Hunan and studied in a Normal School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After graduating in Hunan Normal School was appointed by Mr. Hsiung Hsi-ling to manage educational affairs in the west of Hunan. After returning from Japan was appointed by the Viceroy Chao of Fengtien to become sectional chief of the Agriculture Experiment Department in Fengtien, and then was sent to investigate the agricultural and other conditions of the three provinces. A member of the Committee of Chinputang. Author of the *Result of the Investigation of the Cultivation of the Three Eastern Provinces.*

CHANG I-OU.—Kiangsu. Born 1880. A Graduate of a University in Japan and a University in Belgium. Chief of the Department of Mineralogy of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

CHANG I-PENG.—Vice-Minister of Justice, May, 1918.

CH'ANG JU-CHING. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Tarbagatai, April 25th, 1913.

CHANG JUI-CHI.—Shansi. Born 1871. A Chensu of the late Dynasty, and was an official in Shensi. In the time of the Revolution was appointed Councillor to the Shensi Army and Chief Adviser of Civil Affairs.

Returned to Shansi, spring of 1912, when he was made Chief of Finance Department. In January, 1913, was appointed Chief Civil Administrator, but refused to accept the post. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of *The Poetry and other Literary Work of Lo-heng*. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHANG KUANG-CHIEN.—Acting Provincial Treasurer, Shantung, November, 1911. Acting Governor, January, 1912. Summoned to Peking, March, 1912. Governor of Shuntienfu, December 24, 1912. Frontier Commission, Shensi and Kansu, September 19, 1913. Acting Tuchun and Civil Governor of Kansu.

CHANG KUO-KAN.—Assistant in the Bureau of Estimates, Cabinet, June, 1911. Retired January, 1912. Head of Civil Service Department of Cabinet, May, 1912. Secretary to Cabinet, October 6, 1912. Minister of Commerce, July, 1917.

CH'ANG LIEN. Deputy Lieutenant-General, Ninhsia, June, 1911. Tartar General Ninghsia, July 29, 1912.

CHANG LIEN-KUEI.—Shansi. Born 1880. A Graduate of the University at Tokio. Chujen of the late Dynasty. In the first year of Republic was a Director of the High Agriculture and Forestry College in Shansi, then a member of the Provisional National Council, and a member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chengyuhui.

CHANG LU-CH'ÜAN.—Shantung. Born 1880. Graduate of a High School in Shantung and the Agricultural School in Paoting. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Has been engaged in an enterprise in the colonization and cultivation of Fengtien Province. After having graduated he was engaged in an investigation in agricultural conditions of several places. During the Revolution he led an army and captured Kaomi and Chucheng, and when the Manchu abdication took place he came to Tsinan and organized the Provisional Provincial Assembly. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHANG MIN-CHEN.—Compiler, Commission for Codification of Laws, July 26, 1912. Councillor, Department of Legislation. Cabinet, August 31, 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, September 10, 1912.

CHANG MING-CHI. — Shantung. Acting Financial Commissioner, Kuangsi, July, 1905. Acting Governor, December, 1906. Governor of Kuangsi, June, 1907. Acting Viceroy of Liangkiang provinces, October, 1910, and substantive Viceroy, April, 1911, until the Revolution. Chief Civil Administrator, Kuangsi, October 24, 1913. Civil Governor of Kuangtung, 1914. Governor of Kuangsi, 1915.

CHANG PEI-CHIEH.—Civil Administrator of Szechuan, July, 1912, to September 24, 1913.

CHANG PO-LIEH.—Hupeh. Studied law in Japan. A strenuous opponent of the nationalization of the railways by the Manchu Government. A Hupeh member of the House of Representative.

Chang Shao-pai.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Sinkiang, April 25, 1913.

Chang Shao-tseng.—Councillor to President, April 19, 1912. Military Governor to Suiyuancheng, October 12, 1912. Deputy Military Commissioner and Assistant-Resident at Kiakhta, 1915.

Chang Shi-yu.—Secretary of the General Department at the Headquarters of the Generalissimo of the Army and Navy, 1915.

Chang Tso-ling.—General. Appointed Inspector-General of the Three Eastern Provinces, 1918.

Chang Tsung-hsiang.—Chekiang. Graduate of a Law College in Japan, Superintendent of Police at Peking, 1908–10. Deputy Commissioner of Constitutional Department of the Cabinet, June, 1911. Retired, January, 1912. Chief of Law Department of Cabinet, April, 1912. Chief Justice of Supreme Court, June, 1912, and President of the Commission for the Codification of Laws. Minister in Tokio.

Chang Tsung-yuan.—Acting Vice-Minister of Finance, June, 1912. Vice-Minister, August, 1912. Financial Commissioner Abroad, November 6, 1912. Tuchun of Shantung.

Chang Ta-yi.—Yunnan. Born 1883. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was editor of Yunnan Cha-chih, and Yunnan Colloquial Newspaper. A member of the Committee of Tung Meng Hui. He was one of those who captured Shanghai. He organized a regiment to attack Nanking. Chief Secretary of the Ministry of the Interior in the Nanking Government. After the removal of the Republican capital from Nanking to Peking he was made investigator of the Bureau of Merits, for the Yunnan section. Was appointed Chief of the High Court of Yunnan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Chang Yao-cheng.—Yunnan. Born 1884. Graduate of a University in Japan. When the Nanking Government was organized he was the representative of Yunnan. Was a member of both the Advisory Council of Nanking and Provisional Council in Peking. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Constitutional Drafting Committee. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Minister of Justice, 1916.

Chang Yi-chu.—Hunan. Born 1885. Studied in France. Appointed by the Nanking Government Representative to France, and resigned third month of the same year. In the sixth month he was appointed Commissioner of Foreign Affairs of Yunnan, and was appointed in the fourth month of the second year special Delegate for Foreign Affairs. Supervisor of the Tengyueh Customs, 1915.

Chang Yi-ling, Minister of Education.

Chang Yin-tang.—Accompanied Mr. Tang Shao-yi to Calcutta, 1904. Special Commissioner to investigate Tibetan affairs, 1905. Assistant Resident, Tibet, December, 1906. Negotiated Tibetan Trade

Regulations, 1907-8. Senior Councillor, Waiwupu, January, 1909. Chinese Minister at Washington, August, 1909.

CHANG YUAN-CHI.—Fukien. Commissioner for Industrial Affairs, Mukden, August, 1907. Acting as Commissioner of Education, February 12. Under S. of S. for Interior, April 12. Ordered to vacate post and await other appointment, May 12. Chief Civil Administrator of Fukien, November 16, 1912. Resigned, November 20, 1913. Governor of Fengtien, 1915.

CHANG YU-CHUAN.—Secretary, Waichiaopu, August 16, 1912. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Kiangsu, June 26, 1913. Acting Superintendent of Customs, Wuhu, October 13, 1913; also Delegate for Foreign Affairs for Anhui.

CHANG YU-CHUN.—Military Adviser to the President, April, 1912.

CHANG YU-KENG.—Shantung. Born 1870. Graduate of a Japanese Normal School. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was several years a teacher to various schools. Chinputang.

CHANG YU-TUNG.—Kueichow. Born 1881. A Graduate of a Japanese University. A Councillor of the Ministry of the Interior, and one of the delegates for the Preparation of the National Assembly. Was a member of the Tung Meng Hui. Author of *The Principle of the Constitution.*

CHANG WEN-SHENG.—Commissioner of Occupation, Hsuchow, July 30, 1913.

CHAO CH'ING.—Yunnan. Born 1871. A Graduate of Law School in Yunnan. Was a teacher of both Normal School and Middle School in Yunnan. Established more than forty primary schools in Yunnan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHAO CH'UN-LIEN.—Kiangsu. Born 1867. Chingsu of the late Dynasty. Vice-Minister of Finance, October, 1912, and Vice-Director of Shui Wu Chu, April, 1913. After obtaining the degree of Chingsu, he was appointed magistrate of Kiangsi, where he held several responsible posts, and was ordered to Peking by special edict to fill several important posts as director of various Bureaux. Was a member of the late Chu Cheng Yuan, and Councillor of both the Ministries of Industry and Commerce and Finance. Kuomintang. Retired, October 13, 1913. Accountant of Bank of China, 1915. Appointed Joint Investigator of the Likin System. Supervisor of the Collection of Taxes in Peking, Dec., 1916.

CHAO CHUN-TENG.—Commissioner of Pacification, Kueichow, July 29, 1912. Military Governor of South Hunan, 1917.

CHAO ERH-HSÜN.—Chinese Bannerman. Prefect of Kueiyang, 1893. Judicial Commissioner of Anhui, April, 1895, and of Shansi, July, 1898. Financial Commissioner, New Dominion, November, 1898, and of Shansi, 1902. Governor, Hunan, January, 1903. Acting President of Board of Revenue, August, 1904. Tartar General, Mukden, May, 1905. Viceroy, Szechuan, May, 1907, but did not proceed. Viceroy, Hu-Kuang, September, 1907. Viceroy, Szechuan, March, 1908, where he remained until recalled to take up the post of Viceroy of Manchuria in April, 1911. He held this post until a Bill was passed placing him upon an equal footing with the Tutuhs of Kirin and Shengking. As Tutuh of Fengtien, however, he was virtually given supreme control of military and diplomatic affairs in the three Manchuria provinces. Resigned post of Tutuh of Fengtien, November 3, 1913. "Friend of Sungchan" (see Hsu Shih-chang).

CHAO HENG-CHIN.—Consul-General at Vladivostok.

CHAO PING-LIN.—Kuangsi. Born 1875. Was a Hanlin compiler and then a Censor in the late Ching Dynasty. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Non-partisan. Author of *Memorials of the Censorate* and *The Poetry and Compositions of Po-Yen.* Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHAO SHIH-CH'IN.—Szechuan. Born 1877. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Most of his time was engaged in teaching-work, and was editor of *Szechuan Daily News* and *Hsi-su Hsin Wen.* Kunghotang.

CHAO TSENG-FANG. Supervisor of the Changsha Customs, and later of the Canton Customs, 1915.

CHAO TSUNG-FAN.—Industrial Taotai, Kiangsi, February, 1911. Supervisor of Finance, Anhui, June, 1911. Secretary of Ministry of Finance, September, 1912. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, March, 1913. Director of the Gold Mining Bureau, 1915.

CHAO WEI-HSI.—Kiangsi. Literary Chancellor of Kueichow, spring, 1901. Law Commissioner, Kansu, November, 1911. Acting Viceroy of Shensi and Kansu, March, 1912. Tutuh of Kansu, March, 1912. Deputy Commissioner for Pacification of Kiangsi, July 17, 1913.

CHEN AN-LIANG.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Hunan.

CHEN CHAO-CH'ANG.—Kuangtung. Associated with Jeme Tien-yu in the construction of the Peking-Kalgan Railway. Junior Councillor of Ministry of Communications, December, 1906. Removed from office, January, 1907. Acting Deputy Lieutenant-General of Hunch'un, December, 1907. Acting Governor of Kirin, August, 1908. Governor of Kirin, July, 1910. Tutuh of Kirin, 1912. Member of the Kunghotang. Resigned position of Tutuh and Chief Civil Administrator of Kirin, June 13, 1913. Appointed Civil Administrator of Kuangtung, June 14, 1913. Did not take up duties.

CH'EN CHEN-HSIEN.—Kuangtung. Born 1876. Graduate of the University of California. Became a Christian at 19 years of age. Was attaché to the Chinese Legation at Washington, and an interpreter of the Chinese Consulate in California. When returned to China obtained the title of Chensu, 1907, and Hanlin Compiler, 1908. Was five years chief of the Department for the Agricultural Experiments, and Director of the Agricultural School at Fengtien. Sent to Europe and America by Viceroy Chao of Mukden to study the system of cultivation and colonization, 1911. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, May, 1912. Minister of the same Ministry, July, 1912. Acting Minister of Education, March, 1913, and resigned the post of Minister of Education, May, 1913. Resigned the post of Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, September, 1913. Author of *Ten Rules Governing the Use of Variant Tones in Cantonese*, *One View of the Integral Calculus*, *etc. etc.*

CHEN CHI-YIN.—Councillor, Ministry of Industry and Commerce, September 5, 1912.

CH'EN CHIN-TAO.—Educated abroad. One of China's best-known financial experts. Former Manager of the Taching Bank. Head of Audit Department, Ministry of Finance, September, 1912. Was offered the post of Vice-Minister of Finance in Yuan Shih-kai's November Cabinet, but refused it, and accepted instead the post of Minister of Finance in the Provisional Republican Cabinet. Was again offered, but did not accept, the post of Vice-Minister of Finance on the formation of the first Republican Cabinet. Proceeded to Europe to attend The Hague Conference on Bills of Exchange, etc. Financial Representative Abroad, November, 1913. Minister of Finance, 1916.

CHEN CHIUNG-MIN.—Tutuh of Kuangtung, June 14, 1913. Participated in the Rebellion and was dismissed July 26, 1913. Now in exile abroad. Concerned in the Yunnan revolt, 1915-16.

CHEN ER-NGAN. Governor, Szechuan, 1915.

CH'EN HUAN-NAN.—Hunan. Born 1881. Graduate of Middle School at Hupeh, and a returned student from Japan. After returning from abroad was engaged as teacher in Government schools, and established forty-eight Primary schools in his native town. Was four years agitating for Revolution in Kuangsi; afterwards fled from his native place to evade arrest. Rendered valuable services in winning Kuangsi to the revolutionary cause. Was clerk to the Military Department in Kuangsi Tutuh's Yamen; Military Adviser of the 3rd Army Division. Political Adviser to the Tutuh of Hunan; member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHEN HUAN. General. Deputy Chief of the General Staff, January, 1915.

CHEN HUI-TEH. Native of Chinkiang. Graduated in America. At one time manager of Bank of Kiangsu. Chief Manager of the Commercial Savings Bank, 1915.

CHEN I-FAN (Ivan Chen).—Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Kiangsu, April 15, 1913. Commissioner for Pacification of Tibet, June 14, 1913. Chinese Delegate to Simla Conference.

Ch'en Kuang-yuan.—Commissioner of Occupation, Chihfeng, July 21, 1913. Tuchun of Kiangsi.

Chen Kuo-chi.—Supervisor of the Chungking Customs, 1915.

Chen Kuo-hsiang.—Kueichow member of the Chung Yi-Yuan. Vice-Speaker, ditto, 1913.

Ch'en Lu.—Fukien. Born 1876. A Graduate of Hupeh Chuchian College, and a Graduate of a Law School in Paris (Licencié de la Faculté de Droit de Paris). Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs since April, 1912. In Kuang Hsu 32nd year, went with five Commissioners as interpreter to study political affairs in Europe. Was attaché to the Chinese Legation in France; Delegate to the Second Peace Conference at Hague; a teacher in the Law Department of the Government University in Peking. Obtained the Chensu degree and was made a Hanlin Compiler. Chinputang. High Military Commissioner and Resident-General at Urga, 1915. Appointed Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, May, 1918.

Ch'en Mao-ting.—Fukien. Acting Junior Secretary and Acting Senior Secretary of Waichiaopu, 1909. Councillor of Privy Council, August, 1911. Councillor of Waichiaopu, April, 1912.

Ch'en Pao-ch'en.—Fukien. Sub-Chancellor of Grand Secretariat, with rank of a Vice-President of Board of Ceremonies, April, 1910. Governor of Shansi, June, 1911. Tutor to the Emperor, July, 1911. Advisory Minister to Privy Council, August, 1911. Vice President Imperial Historiography Department, February, 1912. Appointed to the Council of Regency in the abortive restoration of the Manchu Dynasty, July, 1917.

Chen Pih.—Councillor of Tsanchengyuan.

Ch'en Shan.—Yunnan. Born 1877. Censor. Graduate of Yunnan Law School. Established Primary schools for boys and girls in his native town, and opened an Industrial Institute for those who were unemployed. Organized Tien Hsueh Hui, a revolutionary organ. Was member of the Chu Yi Chu of Yunnan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Has been connected with some enterprise in cultivation of waste land, cattle raising, and salt business. Chinputang. Author of *Historical Essays*, *Explanation on some Difficult Parts of Olden Poems*, *The Principles of Law*, *How to develop Yunnan*, and *The Future of China*.

Ch'en Tien-chi.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Soochow, April 15, 1913.

Ch'en Wei.—Head of Department of Ministry of Finance, November 10, 1912. Acting Chief Director of Bank of China, July 5, 1913.

Chen Wei-keng.—Director of the Salt Transport Office in Kirin and Heilungkiang, 1915.

CHEN WEN-TSAO.—Finance Secretary of Shensi, 1915.

CH'EN YI.—Senior Secretary, Ministry of Communications, January, 1912. Councillor, Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, August, 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, September, 1912. Secretary, Ministry of Communications, December 18, 1912. Chiang-chün of Szechuan, 1915. Resident Commissioner at the Court of the Hutukhtu, Urga, 1917.

CH'EN YU.—Chief of Financial Department, Shansi, February, 1913. Chief Civil Administrator, Shansi, June 4, 1913.

CHEN YUN-CHUNG.—Kiangsu. Born 1873. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Chairman of the Peking Chamber of Commerce, 1918.

CH'EN YUNG-SHAN.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Swatow, April 25, 1913.

CHIEN YUNG-MING.—Graduated in Tokio (High Commercial School). Superintendent of the Chinese Siyün (Road Transport) Co., 1915.

CHENG CHIA-HAO.—Hupeh. Born 1881. Educated in Jih Hsin College of Wuchang, and a college in Japan. One of the representatives in the negotiations between the North and the South. Was Councillor of the Tutuh's Yamen of Hupeh, and the examiner of the high officials of Hupeh. Adviser to the Right Wing of the Northern Expedition Army. Was proprietor of the *Hupeh Daily News*. Member of the Tsan Yi Yuan. Established Te-yu-hui in Wuchang to plan for Revolution; this hui was reorganized and became Minhsia, which was finally amalgamated into Kunghotang. Kunghotang.

CHENG CH'IEN.—Administrative Secretary of Kuangtung, 1915.

CHENG HSIA-LING.—Military Commissioner of the Szechuan Marshes.

CHENG JU-CH'ENG.—Admiral. Commissioner of Occupation, Shanghai, July 28, 1913. Commandant of Precautionary Area, Shanghai, August 6, 1913. Director of Kiangnan Arsenal, August 14, 1913.

CHENG MOU-TING.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State).

CH'ÊNG SHIH-CHI.—Kiangsi. Born 1876. Educated in Chin Tan College, Shanghai, and a Graduate of Law School at Peking. Was secretary to a railway company, and other yamens; two years as a teacher of a Railway College at Shanhaikuan; attaché to the Chinese Legation at Paris for four years; three years a clerk in the Railway Department of the Ministry of Communications. Director of Tao-Ching Railway Company, appointed in October, 1911.

CH'ENG TE-CH'UAN.—Szechuan. Acting Tartar General of Heilungkiang in the winter of 1906. Acting Governor of Heilungkiang, May, 1907. Resigned, March, 1908. Acting Governor of Fengtien, May, 1909. Governor of Fengtien, July, 1909. Governor of Kiangsu, April, 1910. Appointed Tutuh of Kiangsu on April 13, 1912. Belongs to no party. Superseded during the Rebellion, 1913.

Ch'êng To.—Kiangsi. Born 1884. Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After returning from Japan started a Law College in Kiangsi. During the time of Revolution he with a few friends organized the War Office in Kiangsi, and became chief of the Bureau of Foreign Affairs. Then was elected as member of the Provisional Assembly of Kiangsi. He was appointed Magistrate of Chi An, which post he refused to accept, but was engaged as teacher and director of several law colleges. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Chentung Liang Ch'eng (Sir).—Kuangtung. Educated in U.S.A. On the staff of the Queen Victoria Jubilee Mission, on which occasion he received a K.C.M.G. First Secretary of Prince Chün's mission to Germany, 1901. Chinese Minister to America and Peru, October, 1902–7. Director of Canton Section of Canton-Hankow Railway, 1907. Chinese Minister to Germany, March, 1910. Retired.

Ch'i Chung-chia.—Kirin. Born 1863. Hanlin Compiler, and a Taotai of Kueichow. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In Tangyuen-hsien, Kirin, he started an immigration enterprise, and within the space of a few years he has succeeded in sending several thousands of families to colonize several thousands of "chins" of waste land. Chinputang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Ch'i Ko-t'an.—Outer Mongolia. Born 1888. Graduate of the Police College, Peking. Prince of the 4th Order of Ko-er-ko; member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan for Outer Mongolia. Chinputang.

Ch'i Yueh-lin.—Kirin. Yung-ting-ho Tao Chihli, February, 1908. Tientsin Tao, April, 1908. Jud. Comm., Chihli, January, 1910. Provincial Treasurer, Honan, November, 1911. Governor, Honan, December, 1911; resigned, April, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kirin, June 13, 1913. Civil Governor of Kiangsu, August, 1915.

Chia Pin-ch'ing.—Acting Deputy Lieutenant-Governor, Kueihuacheng, June 16, 1913.

Chiang Chao-chung.—Acting Commander of Gendarmerie, July 14, 1912. Deputy Lieutenant-General, Bordered Red Chinese Banner, August 19, 1912. In June, 1917, he accepted the post of Acting Premier in order to countersign Li Yuan-lung's mandate dissolving Parliament.

Chiang Chung-hsian.—Chinese Minister to Tokio, 1918.

Chiang Hsi-ming.—Hupeh. Born 1877. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Delegate for the preparation of the establishment of the Bank of China. Was a teacher in the Government University in Peking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of *Self Government*, *Taxes*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Chiang Ko-ch'ing.—Chief Administrative Secretary, Fukien.

CHIANG KUEI-TI.—Anhui. A General who is over seventy years of age. He was cashiered for the loss of Port Arthur to the Japanese, but his rank was subsequently restored to him with a title for bravery. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, February, 1901. In command of Imperial Guards at Peking (July, 1901–February, 1908). On special service in Kiangnan, February, 1908. Commander-in-Chief, Chihli, September, 1908. Summoned to Peking to take charge of the defence of the capital on the outbreak of the Revolution. His old-style troops (the bulk of them, known as the Wu Wei-chun, are generally stationed at Tungchow, near Peking) rendered signal service in preserving order in the capital both during and after the Revolution, and remained loyal when the Third Division mutinied at Peking. General Chiang was appointed Lieut.-General at Jehol on April 26, 1912. His troops at Tungchow mutinied and looted the town in August, 1912, and he is reported to have ordered the execution of his own grandson.

CHIANG TSENG-WEI.—Sent as Pacification Commissioner to Yunnan, December, 1915.

CHIANG TSO-PING.—Hupeh. Born 1883. After graduation in a Middle School he studied in Japan, and is a Graduate of the Training School for Military Officers in Japan. Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Played a prominent part in the late Revolution, for which he agitated for a long time. Is Lieutenant-General of the Army, and is the Vice-President of the Ministry of War, appointed on January 4, 1912. Was a member of Tung Meng Hui, but resigned the membership.

CHIANG WEI-CH'IAO.—Kiangsu. Born 1872. Educated in the High School of Nanching. Councillor to the Ministry of Education. Chief Secretary to the Ministry of Education at Nanking, May, 1912. Director of Ai-kuo Girls' School at Shanghai, and was one of the editors of the *Commercial Press* at Shanghai. Non-partisan. Author of several Chinese Readers for the primary schools.

CHIANG YEN-HSING.—Judicial Commissioner, Chiang Huai, July 5, 1913. Defence Commissioner, Kiang Pei, August 27, 1913.

CHIEN NUNG-HSUN.—Minister of the Interior, 1917. Appointed Prime Minister, February, 1918.

CHIN CHAO-YEN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. A Graduate of the Government University in Peking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Was Director of the Middle School in Chinhwafu; a teacher of various other schools; the Magistrate of Yung-chia Hsien. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

CHIN PANG-YING.—Vice-Minister of Agriculture.

CHIN YUN-P'ENG.—Temporarily in charge as Tutuh of Shantung, August 18, 1913. Acting Tutuh, September 17, 1913.

Ching, Prince (I-k'uang).—Imperial Clansman, Prince of the Third Order, 1884. President of the Tsungli Yamen, April, 1884. Second Director of Imperial Clan Court. Associate-Director of Board of Admiralty, October, 1885. Grand Chamberlain, Vice-President Imperial Clan Court, Lieut.-General Bordered Yellow Banner, Superintendent of Customs and Octroi, Peking, August, 1891. Director-General of Board of Admiralty, September, 1901. Director of Imperial Equipage Department. Superintendent Imperial Armoury, Prince of First Order, February, 1894. President of Council of Government, April, 1901. President of Board of Foreign Affairs, July, 1901. Grand Councillor, April, 1903. President of Council of Army Reorganization, November, 1903. Comptroller-General of Army Board, May, 1907. Hereditary Prince of First Order, December, 1908. Star of First Class, Second Division, January, 1909. Supervisor-in-Chief of Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Resigned Comptrollership of Army Board, July, 1909. Premier in the first Chinese Cabinet established by Imperial Decree in May, 1911. Dismissed from Premiership, and appointed President of the Privy Council on November 1, 1911. Retired into private life on the abdication of the Manchus, and now resides at Tientsin. He is reported to have been deprived of his rank by the Empress Dowager in June, 1912.

Chiu Kuan-fên.—Kiangsi. Born 1885. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Was a Chujen and a Magistrate in Shensi, in the late Dynasty. During the Revolution he was made Chief of Finance Department in the War Office, and was a sectional chief in the Finance Department of the Province. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Ch'iu Tung-yu.—Chekiang. L. Jud. Com. and Hei-Shui Tao Heilungkiang, winter, 1906. Commissioner of Heilungkiang, April, 1909, Head of Law Preparation Department, January 19, 1913.

Chou Chao-hsiang.—Police Intendent, Szechuan, August, 1910. Vacated office, July, 1911. Intendent of Industry, Fengtien, November, 1911. Acting Inspector-General of Police Administration, Peking, July 18, 1913. Acting Salt Commissioner, Shantung, July 22, 1913.

Chou Ch'ang-shou.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Ningpo, April 15, 1913.

Chou Chin-piao, Taoyin of Shanghai, 1914. Special Envoy of the Ministry of Foreign Intercourse in Kiangsu, 1915.

Chou Hsueh-hsi.—Anhui. Salt Commissioner, Chihli, January, 1907. Mourning, December, 1907. Promoter and Director of Peking Waterworks. Elected President of the Anhui Railway Co., with approval of the Throne, March, 1908. Was largely instrumental in arranging the amalgamation of the Kaiping and Lanchow Mines during the winter of 1911–12. Elected Minister of Finance in Lu Cheng-hsiang's Cabinet, on July 26, 1912. Director-General of Revenue Council, December 18, 1912. Resigned on the formation of Hsiung Hsi-ling's Cabinet. Minister of Finance, 1914. Director-General of the Salt Bureau, 1915. Resigned, 1915.

CHOU TZU-CH'I.—Shantung. Educated in America. Acting Junior Secretary of the Board of Foreign Affairs, September, 1908. Acting Senior Secretary of the same Board, January, 1909. Junior Secretary (January, 1909) and Senior Secretary (May, 1909) of the Board of Foreign Affairs. Acting Junior Councillor (July, 1909) and Acting Senior Councillor (August, 1909). Accompanied Prince Tsai Hsun's Naval Mission to Japan and America, August, 1910, and also Prince Tsai Chen's Coronation Mission in 1911. Rejoined Board of Foreign Affairs upon his return. Appointed Vice-Minister of Finance in Yuan Shih-kai's November Cabinet on the refusal of that post by Dr. Chen Chin-tao. Acting Minister of Finance, March, 1912. After complications arose in connection with the Belgian Loan he was appointed Tutuh of Shantung (March, 1912). Acting Governor, Bank of China, August 21, 1913. Minister of Communications, September 11, 1913. Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, 1915. Member of the Senate, 1916. Interested in the promotion of the Peiyang Ironworks.

CHU CHAO-HSIN.—Kuangtung. Born 1879. Graduate of the Government University in Peking and Columbia University, U.S.A. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Tachungtang. Author of *The Chinese Public Loans*, *etc.* Consul-General at San Francisco.

CHU CHIA-PAO, Governor of Chihli, 1915.

CHU CH'I-CHIEN.—Superintendent of Peking Inner Police in 1904. Subsequently a Director of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Minister of Communications (July, 1912) in Lu Cheng-hsiang's and Chao Ping-chun's Cabinet. Appointed Acting Premier, July 27, 1913, but did not accept post. Minister of Interior, September 11, 1913. Appointed chief delegate for the North at the Peace Conference with the South, February, 1919.

CHU HSIAO-FU, Supervisor of the Lungchow Customs, 1915.

CHU HSIEN-WEN.—Councillor, Law Department of Cabinet, November 27, 1912.

CHU JUI.—Chekiang. Born 1882. A Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty, and a Graduate of Military College of Nanyang. Lieutenant-General of the Army with the brevet rank of a full General. Has been Tutuh of Chekiang since the 21st day of the 8th month of the 1st year of the Republic, and Acting Chief Civil Administrator of the same Province from the 1st day of the 3rd month of the 2nd year. When Chekiang began to organize new troops he was appointed Councillor to train the new army; then he was appointed Assistant Chief of the General Staff of Anhui Bureau for the training of the new army, and also acted as Director of the Surveying College; and then was appointed

Commander of the 81st Brigade. On September 14th, 1911, he led his brigade to attack and occupy the Arsenal, and also Hangchow City. Then he, with the help of Kiangsu troops, marched to Nanking. After capture of Nanking he was made General of the 1st Army Division of Chekiang. In the 1st month of the 1st year of the Republic he placed his troops at Hsuchow and Soochow. When the quarrel about the removal of the capital to the South was at its height, he settled the matter by a telegram. Promoted General of the 5th Army Division, and stayed at Nanking for half a year. In the 5th month he returned to Chekiang, and was appointed Tutuh of Chekiang. In the 9th month appointed Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of full General of the Army. In the 2nd year, when the policy of the division of the military and civil administrations was decided upon, he was appointed Acting Chief Civil Administrator of Chekiang. When the Kiangsi rebellion broke out he took strict measures to ensure peace and order of the Province and sent troops to assist other Provinces in the suppression of rebellion. Nonpartisan. Author of *Conditions in the Armies of various Powers.* Chiangchun of Chekiang, 1915.

CH'U LIEN.—Acting Salt Commissioner, Liangkuang, August 8, 1913.

CHU CHAO. Director of the Gold Mining Office in Heilungkiang, 1915.

CHU PAO-SAN.—Chairman Chinese Chamber of Commerce, Shanghai, 1918.

CHU PENG-SHOU. Supervisor of the Ichang Customs, 1915.

CHU TING-CHI.—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of Harvard University Councillor of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce.

CHUANG YUN-K'UAN.—T'ai-P'ing-Ssu-Shun Tao, Kuangsi, spring, 1908. Commissioner for the opening of Pukow, December 4, 1912. Tutieh of Kiangsu, 1913. President of the Board of Censors, 1915. Resigned, February, 1916.

CH'UAN LIANG.—Hupeh. Born 1875. A returned student from Japan Chu-jen of the late Ching Dynasty. Industrial Adviser to the Viceroy of Hupeh; started the Commercial College of Hupeh; and was Director of the Commercial Department of the Government University, Peking. Is now Officiating Councillor of the Ministry of Communications and Acting Chief of the Railway Department. Is High Adviser of the Vice-President, and Committee Member of the Central Commercial Society and the Railway Association of the whole country. Chinputang. Author of *The Latest Algebra*, *Commerce*, *Finance*, and *Primers on the Japanese Language.*

CH'UN, Prince.—Ex-Regent. Brother of the late Emperor Kuang Hsu. Succeeded to his father's title in January, 1891. Lieutenant-General of Plain White Banner, June, 1901. Special Envoy to Germany to apologize for the murder of the German Minister, July, 1901. Supernumerary Grand Councillor, June, 1907. Grand Councillor, February, 1908. Member of Commission of Constitutional Reform and Government Council, 1908. Appointed Prince Regent on the death of the Emperor Kuang Hsu, November 13, 1908. Took the oath of observance of the Constitution on November 26, 1911. Resigned from the Regency on December 6, 1911.

CHUNG SHIH-MING.—Secretary of the Salt Bureau, 1915.

CHUNG WEN-HU.—Taoyin of the West Szechuan Circuit, 1915. Superintendent of the Chünchuanyuan Bank of Szechuan, 1915.

EN HUA.—Kiangsu. Councillor of the Privy Council, August, 1911. A Secretary of the Cabinet, May, 1912. Resigned, May 17, 1913.

FAN TSENG-HSIANG.—Hupeh. Judicial Commissioner, Shensi, August, 1901. Employed in Government Council, July, 1901. Judicial Commissioner, Chekiang, January, 1903, and Shensi, October, 1903. Financial Commissioner, Shensi, December, 1904. Cashiered, January, 1907. Rank restored, January, 1908. Financial Commissioner, Nanking, spring, 1908. Civil Administrator, Hupeh, April, 1912.

FAN YUAN-LIEN.—Has a reputation as a Chinese scholar. Vice-Minister of Education on the formation of the first Republican Cabinet, and subsequently Minister of Education in Lu Cheng-hsiang's Cabinet. Resigned, April, 1913. Minister of Education in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917.

FANG SHÊ-FU.—Salt Commissioner for the Lianghuai districts, 1915.

FANG SHENG-CHENG.—Fukien. Born 1875. A Graduate of the Normal School of Fukien, and was a Vice-Chujen of the late Dynasty. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In 33rd year of Kuang Hsu was a teacher at the Yun-siu school; in 34th year, an Educational Supervisor of Yun-siu, and in the 1st year of Republic, Chairman of the Anti-Opium Society in Yun-siu. Chinputang.

FANG SHU.—Councillor, Department of Legislation, Cabinet, August 31, 1912. Deputy for Organization of National Assembly, October 9, 1912. Chief Secretary to the Cabinet, 1917.

FÊNG CHÊN-CHI.—Hupeh. Born 1887. Graduate of the Imperial University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

FENG KUO-CHANG, Baron.—Director of Noble's College, January, 1906, with rank of Deputy Lieutenant-General. Director of Military Council, Board of War, July, 1907. A Director-in-Chief of the General Staff, August, 1909. In command of the first Imperial Army at Wuchang, he succeeded in recapturing Hanyang from the revolutionaries on November 27, 1911, for which he was rewarded with the rank of Baron of the 2nd Class. Subsequently recalled to Peking, and nominated Commandant of the Imperial Guard in place of Prince Tsai Tao. Lieutenant-Governor of Chahar, December, 1911. On the establishment of the Republic he was appointed Chief of the President's Military Council. Appointment as Tutuh of Chihli published on September 11, 1912, together with an order to retain the post of Commandant of the Imperial Guard. Commissioner of Pacification, Chiang Hwai, July 23, 1913. Took part in suppressing rebellion (July–August), and was present at recapture of Nanking. Tutuh of Kiangsu. Field-Marshal, 1914. Chief of General Staff (Tang Tsai-li acting). Elected Vice-President of the Republic, November, 1916. Appointed Acting-President by Li Yuan-hung, when the latter resigned the post, July 1, 1917. Remained Acting-President until September, 1918, when he was succeeded by Hsu Shih-chang.

FENG YUAN-TING.—Secretary to Tang Shao-yi when the latter was Customs Taotai at Tientsin. For some time Joint Director of the Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Vice-Minister of Communications. In charge of construction of Hukuang Railways, June 18, 1913.

FU CHIANG.—Chekiang. Born 1876. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Special Delegate for Foreign Affairs at Kirin, April 13. Chinputang.

FU LIANG-TSO.—Assistant Secretary to the President, April, 1912. Acting Commissioner of Occupation, Chi Yu, June 28, 1913.

HA HAN-CHANG.—Hupeh. Assistant Director, Military Council, Board of War, 1907. A Director-in-Chief of the General Staff, September, 1909. Military Adviser to the President, April 9, 1912.

HA TÊ-ÊRH.—Tu-lu-fan, Sinkiang. Born 1862. Self-educated. The 4th class hereditary Changchin of the late Ching Dynasty, and has the control of the Tien Tribe of Mohammedans. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

HAN KUO-CHUN.—Kiangsu. Acting Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Fengtien, April, 1910. Substantive do., September 10th. Commissioner for the Interior, Kirin, December 11. Summoned to Peking, December 12, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, June 9, 1913. Governor of Anhui, 1915. Governor of Hunan, 1915.

HAN YÜ-CHÊN.—Hupeh. Born 1882. A Graduate of Hupeh Law School. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and a lawyer. Was a Sectional Chief of the Department of Justice, Hupeh: an editor of *Chung Hwa Min-kuo Kung Pao*, etc., and a teacher of Law School, Hupeh. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HO KUO-CHANG.—Kiangsi. P.G. Police Intendent (Acting), Kueichow, spring, 1908. In charge as Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsi, June 8, 1913.

HO SHIH-KUO (Tsan).—Kuangtung. Born 1865. A Graduate of Kuangtung Tungwen College, and studied in Japan. Chensu of the late Dynasty. Was teacher of several schools, Director of Tsing-hwa College, Magistrate of Kirin Fu. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of *The Outline of the Russo-Japanese War*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Ho Tao-yen.—Supervisor of the Changsha Customs and Special Envoy of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs in Hunan, 1915.

Ho Tíng-kuei.—Anhui. Born 1880. A Graduate of the Book-keeping school of Hupu. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was appointed to assist in the organization of the police in Peking. Established Hsusung College, and Director of the Industry College of Kueichow. Was appointed to establish the Court and Procuratorate, and model prison of Kueichow. Author of *Chuminchung*, and other poetical and literary works.

Ho Yu.—Secretary to Cabinet, May 17, 1913.

Ho Yŭ-shin.—Chekiang. Born 1877. Graduate of the Engineer Department of the Japanese Imperial University at Tokio. Investigator of the Chekiang Bureau of Investigation of Mines, 33rd year of Kuang Hsu, and in the 8th moon of the same year was appointed a member of the Commission of the examination of returned students. Proceeded to Japan to investigate into the system of Japanese Imperial Universities, 34th year of Kuang Hsu. Was Director to the Engineering Department of the Government University, Peking. Chief of the Department of Mines in the Ministry of Industry and Commerce. Was appointed Acting Director of Government University in Peking, December, 1912. Resigned, November, 1913.

Hsi Liang.—Mongol. Governor of Shansi, October, 1900. Director-General of Yellow River, June, 1901. Acting Governor, Honan, December, 1901. Governor of Honan, March, 1902. Lieutenant-Governor of Jehol, May, 1902. Viceroy of Fukien and Chekiang, April, 1903. Viceroy of Szechuan, December, 1904. Viceroy of Yunnan and Kueichow, March, 1907. Viceroy of Manchuria, February, 1909. Retired, April, 1911. Lieutenant-General of Jehol, November, 1911. Resigned, February, 1912.

Hsia Heng-wu.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State)

Hsia Shou-kang.—Commissioner of Interior, Hupeh, May, 1912 Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Hupeh, October 30, 1912. Chief of Civil Service Bureau, September 25, 1913. Acting Chief Censor, July, 1914.

Hsiang Hsiang.—Chekiang. Born 1880. Graduate of the University of Columbia, U.S.A. Is the Councillor of the Ministry of Finance and a member of the Committee of the Bank of China. Chinputang. Is the author of *A Comparison of the Administration of Four Countries*, *The Politics*, *The Recovery of Sovereign Rights*, *The Taxes*, *The Change to a Gold Standard*, and *The Salvation of the Country by Discharging the National Debts*. Address, Hsi Fa Pu Street, Peking.

Hsiang Jui-Kian.—Hunan. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Commercial School in Japan. Vice-Minister of Industry and Commerce and Acting Minister of Industry and Commerce, July, 1913. President of the Society for the Protection of Chinese Merchants, and President of the Central Society for Commercial Education. Formerly was editor of several papers in Shanghai. Chinputang.

HSIANG NAI-CH'I.—Hunan. Born 1882. Studied Political Science in Japan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HSIEH SHU-CH'IANG.—Kiangsu. Born 1878. A Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. When returned to China he obtained degrees in the Examination of the Board of Education, but was arrested and imprisoned for eighteen days on account of being suspected as a revolutionist. After being released he proceeded to Shanghai, where he became editor of *Ta Kung Ho Jih Pao*, etc., and was teacher to several schools. Chinputang.

HSIEH SHU-LIN.—Fengtien. Born 1875. Graduate of Normal and other schools in Fengtien. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In the 3rd year of Hsuang Tung, from the 2nd to the 5th months, he was made Chairman of the Society for the Prevention of Plagues in Liucheng. Chinputang.

HSIEH YU YUAN.—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of Peking Law College. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

HSIN HAN.—Kiangsu. Born 1877. Graduate of a University in Japan. In the late Dynasty he was a clerk in the Minchengpu, and the Chief Procurator of Chekiang. After the Restoration, Chief of the Library of Nanking and Magistrate of Nanking district, and Director of the private Law School of Nanking. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

HSIU CHI.—Manchu. Deputy Lieutenant-General, Plain Yellow Banner, until September, 1911. Lieutenant-General, Manchu Bordered Blue Banner, June 20, 1913.

HSIUNG CH'ÊNG-CHANG.—Szechuan. Born 1885. Graduate of Political Science Department of a Japanese University at Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Secretary to the ex-President Sun at Nanking. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HSIUNG HSI-LING.—Hunan. Metropolitan Graduate of 1894. A prominent Hanlin scholar, who subsequently studied abroad in Japan and Europe. He was an intimate friend of the reformer Kang Yu-wei, and after the latter's downfall he was arrested, but promptly released. He held posts in the Boards of Agriculture, Industry and Commerce of Kiangsu and Fengtien, was Acting Commissioner of Foreign Affairs in Hupeh in 1910, and at the time of the Wuchang outbreak was Salt Finance Supervision Commissioner at Mukden. He accompanied Tuan Fang on his foreign mission in 1905. On the outbreak of the Revolution he went south and joined the republicans, becoming President of the Republican Committee in Hunan. He was appointed Minister of Finance in the first Republican Cabinet, and was responsible for the conduct of the loan negotiations with the International Group from the time of his arrival in Peking until he resigned, in June, after Tang-Shao-yi gave up the Premiership. He continued to be employed by the Government in the capacity of Chief of a Commission for the negotiation of foreign loans after his resignation, and it was he who was mainly responsible for negotiating the Crisp Loan. Subsequently Lieut.-General of Jehol until appointed Premier, July 31, 1913. Finance (Additional), September 11, 1913. Director-General of the National Oil Administration, 1915. Director of Flood Relief, Chihli. Director-General of the Grand Canal Improvement Board, 1917.

HSIUNG HSIANG-SENG.—Baron, 2nd Order, February, 1916.

HSU EN-YUAN.—Vice-Chief of the Board of Audit. Governor of the Bank of China.

HSU PAO-HENG.—Chekiang. Secretary to Cabinet, May, 1912. Chief of Department of Civil Service, October 18, 1912. Additional Temporary Acting Chief of Rewards Department, July 29, 1913. Confirmed in latter post, September 25, 1913.

HSU PAN-LING.—Councillor, Ministry of Justice, June 9, 1913.

HSU SHAN-CHING.—Consul-General in Panama.

HSU SHIH-CH'ANG.—Honan. Probationary Grand Councillor, June, 1905. Minister of Government Council, June, 1905. President, Board of Police, October, 1905. Grand Councillor, February, 1906. Removed from Grand Council, November, 1906. Special Mission to Manchuria, December, 1906. President of Board of Interior, December, 1906. Viceroy of Manchuria, April, 1907. President of Board of Communications, February, 1909. Director-General, Tientsin-Pukow Railway, July 1909. Grand Secretary, February, 1910. Grand Councillor, August, 1910. Appointed Vice-Premier in Prince Ching's Cabinet, in May, 1911. Removed from that post, and appointed Vice-President of the Privy Council on November 1, 1911. Chief of General Staff, November, 1911. High Commissioner for Training Imperial Guard, and Grand Guardian to the Emperor, December, 1911. Relieved of post on General Staff, February, 1912. On the resignation of the Prince Regent was appointed, with Shih Hsu, Grand Guardian of the Emperor. A "Sworn Brother" of President Yuan Shih-kai. Secretary of State, 1915. With Chao Erh-hsün, Li Ching-hsi, and Chang Chien received the title of "The Four Friends of Sungchan" (i.e. of Yuan Shih-kai). On the failure of Yuan Shih-kai's attempt to establish a monarchy Hsu Shih-chang resigned his Secretaryship and retired to Honan. Returned to Peking, November, 1916, to mediate between the President, Li Yuan-hung, and the Premier, Tuan Chi-jui. During the unsettled period, 1917–18, he remained detached from Peking politics, but without losing his influence over the contending factions. On September 4, 1918, elected President of the Republic of China, at a joint meeting of the Senate and House of Representatives, by 425 out of 436 votes.

HSU SHIH-YING.—Anhui. Born 1872. President of High Court of Justice at Mukden, September, 1908. Chief Justice of the High Court at Peking, May, 1912. Minister of Justice, July, 1912. Sent to Great Britain, Germany, France, Russia, Italy, Austria, Belgium, Holland and other countries to investigate the judicial system. Was also sent to the United States of America to attend the Eighth Conference of the Prison Reforms. Has been in the services of police and judiciary for fifteen years. Resigned, September 4, 1913. Chief Civil Administrator Fengtien, October 13, 1913. Governor of Fukien, 1915. Minister of Communications, 1916; resigned, May, 1917.

HSÜ TING-SHENG.—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Graduate of Yi Hsueh Kuan, Peking, and of High Normal School at Tokio. Was President of the Chinese Republican Association (branch office) at Kiangsi, 1911. Chief of the Education Department, Kiangsi, 1912. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan, 1913. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HSU SHU-TSENG.—Secretary-in-Chief of the Cabinet; resigned, November, 1916. Played a prominent part in Peking in 1917–18. Sent on a special mission to Japan, October, 1918.

HSU YUAN.—Customs Taotai, Tientsin, April, 1912. Controller of Customs, Tientsin, December 1, 1912. Deputy of Foreign Affairs, Tientsin, March, 1913, and Honan, June 12, 1913.

HU CHAO-TSUNG.—Head of Department for Foreign Affairs, Hupeh, September 15, 1912. Title changed to Foreign Affairs Delegate, January 16, 1913.

HU CHING-YI.—Officiating Tutuh of Szechuan, July, 1912. Substantive, June, 1913. Member of the Tsanchengyuan, 1915.

HU HAN-MING.—Kuangtung. Studied in Japan, where he met Dr. Sun Yat-sen, of whom he became a warm admirer. Assisted the revolutionary cause as editor of a newspaper at Hongkong. After the resignation of the Provisional Tutuh of Kuangtung he was appointed to the post, but soon afterwards relinquished it to accompany Dr. Sun to Nanking in the capacity of secretary. On the resignation of Dr. Sun, Hu accompanied him to Canton, where the Acting Tutuh Chen Chun-ming promptly resigned in his favour. Hu was thereupon re-elected Tutuh by the Provincial Assembly. Is a member of the Kuomintang. Commissioner of Pacification of Tibet, June 14, 1913. Deprived of all rank during the rebellion.

HU HUI.—Commissioner of Foreign Affairs, Kiangsi, April 15, 1913.

HU O-KUNG.—Hupeh. Born 1885. Educated in the Chiang Han College, Hupeh; High Agriculture College, Peiyang; and High Agriculture College, Kiangsi. The Commanding Officer of both water and land forces, Hupeh. Chief of the General Department of Tutuh's office.

Vice-Chief of the General Staff, Han-Yang, and the Chief of the General Staff in the North, 1911. Director for the Bureau for devising means of livelihood for the Manchus at Ching-nan. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kunghotang. Author of *The New Heaven and the New Earth*, *Literary Works of Ao-kung*, etc.

HU SHANG-YI. Administrative Secretary for Shantung, 1915.

HU SI-YI. Salt Commissioner for Chêkiang, 1915.

HU TUAN-HUI. Chihli. Born 1881. Graduate of a Japanese University. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

HU WEI-TÊ.—Chekiang. Minister to Russia, 1904. Junior Councillor, Board of Foreign Affairs, September, 1907. Minister to Japan, March, 1908. Star of 2nd Class, 1st Division, January, 1909, Junior Vice-President, Board of Foreign Affairs, May, 1910. Senior Vice-President, July, 1910. Adjoint Director-General of Revenue Council, July, 1910. Acting Minister of Finance, November, 1911. Appointed Acting Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Republican Government, pending the arrival from Europe of Lu Cheng-hsiang. Controller-General of the Revenue Council (Shuiwuchu), March, 1912. (He was nominated as Minister of Communications in July, but his name was rejected by the National Council.) Minister to France, Spain and Portugal, November 24, 1912.

HU YING.—Commissioner for Land Reclamation, Chinghai, May, 1912. Being involved in the rebellion of 1913, he fled from China.

HUANG CHANG.—Szechuan. Born 1878. A Graduate of a High School in Szechuan, and a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. After returning from Japan he was elected as member of the Provisional Szechuan Assembly, and was a teacher of the High School and Law School in Szechuan. He established a Law School and a Finance School in Szechuan. Kunghotang. Author of *The Latest Method of Book-keeping.*

HUANG CHI-JUI.—President, High Court of Justice, Kansu.

HUANG CHUNG-YING, Admiral.—Chief of Naval General Staff, April, 1912.

HUANG HSIAO-CHIU.—Kuangtung. Born 1884. Studied three years in Japan. Secretary of Tutuh's office, Kuangtung, 1912. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Opened two newspaper offices, which were shut down by officials for promulgating revolutionary ideas, but was afterwards engaged as editor of *Jen Chuan Pao.* Kungmintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

HUANG HSI-CH'UAN.—Kuangtung. Born 1851. Studied in Japan. Was a Taotai of Kuangsi ; Chinese Consul at New York, and then transferred to Peru. In 1912, was High Adviser to the Tutuh of Kuangtung, and Adviser to the Defence Commissioner there, and then became Speaker to the Kuangtung Assembly. A member of the

Ts'an Yi Yuan. Author of *Comment on the Commercial Treaty between Great Britain and China*, *Experiments on Agriculture and Forestry* (six volumes), etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1912.

HUANG KAI-WEN.—Kuangtung. Born 1865. A Graduate of Paiyang Telegraph College. Acting Intendent of Industry, Mukden, August, 1907. Degraded to Sub-Prefect, August, 1909. Controller of Customs, Hankow, December 1, 1912. Chief of the Hankow office of the Ching-Han Railway Company.

HUANG P'EI-SUNG.—Fukien. Military Optimus, 1880. Brigade General, Ch'iung-Yen-chen, Kuangtung, July, 1906. Defence Commissioner, Fukien, July 24, 1913.

HUANG SHIH-LUNG.—Defence Commissioner, Kuangtung, August 10, 1913. Rewards Commissioner of the Forces, Kuangtung, August 8, 1913.

HUANG YU-CH'ANG.—Hunan. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Law College in Japan. Speaker of the Hunan Provincial Assembly. Chu Jen of the late Ching Dynasty. After the Revolution, was appointed Director of a Law School of Hunan, and Controller of the fifth final electoral district.

HUANG YÜN-P'ÊNG.—Szechuan. Born 1883. A Graduate of Tungwen College in Szechuan and of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. In the time of Revolution he organized the Minkuo Lien-ho Hui in Shanghai, and was editor of the *Shanghai Ta Kung Ho Jih Pao*. Was a member of the Szechuan Provisional Assembly, and afterwards Director of the Chunchang Bank of Chungking. Kunghotang.

HUANG YUNG-LIANG.—Consul-General in Australia (Melbourne) 1913. Member of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

HUNG SHU-TSU.—Kiangsu. Hsiu-tsai. Born in 1858. In 1888 he went to Europe to study the political situations of England, France, Italy, and Germany. Secretary to the Ministry of the Interior, appointed June 20, 1912. Being alleged to have been involved in the Sung murder case, fled to Tsingtao.

HUNG TSZE-CHÊNG.—Military Governor of the Western Circuit of Kiangsi.

JEME TIEN-YU (better known by Chinese as Chan Tien-yu).—Educated in America, adopting the profession of engineer. Was in charge of the construction of the Peking-Kalgan Railway. Now Assistant Director of the Kuangtung section of the Canton-Hankow Railway.

JEN KO-CHENG.—Governor of Yunnan, 1915.

JUNG HSÜN.—A Manchu. Born 1872. A Graduate of the abridged course in a Normal School in Japan, and a Graduate of the Law School for Nobles in Peking. Vice-President of the Ministry of the Interior and acting as Vice-Director of the Bureau of Mongolia and

Tibet. Was Director of the Government University in Peking; sent to Japan to study the system of education; appointed to reform the Chung Wen Men Octroi; appointed to establish the Chief Police Office in Peking; the founder of Mongolian, Mohammedan, Tibetan newspapers, and Mongolian and Tibetan Schools. Chinputang.

K'ANG P'EI-HANG.—Shansi. Born 1876. Studied in Japan after having graduated from Shansi University. At the end of a year he returned with several friends to start a revolution, but failing in his attempt in Mongolia, he was placed under arrest by the General there. Subsequently returned to his native place to do educational work. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. He does not belong to any party. Author of *The Principle of Evolution*, etc.

K'ANG YU-WEI.—Kuangtung. A well-known reformer, who started his campaign in favour of reform in the South by means of leaflets and lectures. Was received in audience by the late Emperor Kuang Hsu on June 14, 1898, on the recommendation of Weng T'ung-ho, the Imperial Tutor. He at once obtained a strong influence over the Emperor, whose famous reform decrees of 1898 were inspired by K'ang. Was proscribed, and ordered to be decapitated when the Empress Dowager effected her *coup d'état*, but escaped, and subsequently resided abroad, principally in America. An advocate of the adoption of Confucianism as the State Religion. Returned to China under the Republic. Was prominent in Peking at the time of Chang Huan's restoration of the Manchu dynasty, July, 1917, and figured in the appointments made at that time.

KAO CHUANG-KAI.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Amoy, April 25, 1913.

KAO CHUNG-HO.—Hupeh. Born 1875. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. After the Revolution he was appointed Councillor of the Tutuh's office, Hupeh. He led troops and captured several cities, and after the Declaration of the Republic he disbanded more than 4000 troops. He was editor of newspapers in Hupeh. A member of Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of *Huifumong*. Unseated bv Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

KAO ERH-CHIEN.—Fukien. Junior Secretary, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, August, 1907. Lin-An-K'ai-Kung Tao, Yunnan, February, 1908. Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Yunnan, February, 1908. Commissioner for the Macao Delimitation, 1909. Senior Councillor, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, July, 1910. Double Dragon, 2nd Class, 2nd Grade, June, 1911. Provincial Treasurer, Yunnan, July, 1911. Acting Provincial Treasurer of Szechuan, November, 1911. Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs; resigned May, 1918.

KAO SHEN.—Secretary, Ministry of Navy, September 8, 1912.

KAO SUNG-JU.—Superintendent of Education and Industry under Manchu Government. Director Hupeh Government Bank; Co-Director Hupeh Government Mint. Superintendent of Mines in Hupeh.

KAO TSENG-CHÜEH.—Shensi. Police Intendent, Szechuan, spring, 1908. Pacificator in Shensi, November, 1911. Acting Civil Governor of Shansi, October 19, 1913.

KENG CH'UN-NIEN.—Honan. Born 1883. Studied in Japan. A member of the Central Educational Society, and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher and Director of various Schools. Chinputang.

KENG YEN.—Councillor, Department of Legislation. Cabinet, August 31, 1912.

KIANG YUNG.—Governor of Shansi.

KING PANG-PING.—Joint Examiner, with Wu Chao-hsu, an American adviser and a Japanese adviser, of students who have graduated abroad. Director-General of the National Conservancy Board January, 1916.

KU CHUNG-HSIU.—Chihli. Born 1874. Graduate of the Peking Government University and a returned student from Japan. Was a Teacher in the High Normal School in Chihli. Was a Secretary to the Governor of Chekiang, establishing eight judicial courts in the Province. After the outbreak at Wuchang, was elected to proceed to Wuchang and Nanking to assist in the organization of the new Government, and was appointed to draft the Provisional Constitution, etc. Was a member of the late National Council, and of the Chung Yi Yuan, and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Author of *Outlines of Chinese History*, *Moral Philosophy*, *The Essentials of a Constitution*, *Financial Reforms*, and a book on Poetry, Translator of several works from foreign languages into Chinese. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Minister of Commerce, 1916.

KU MING-TE.—Sinkiang. Born 1869. Studied in Sinkiang High School, and a graduate of the school established by Tzu Yi-chu. Vice-Speaker of Sinkiang Provincial Assembly. Chinputang.

KU WEI-CHIUN (Dr. V. K. Wellington Koo).—Ph.D. in Law, Columbia University, New York. Member of Phi Beta Kappa Society. Secretary to Cabinet, May, 1912; retired July, 1912. Secretary to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, August, 1912; Councillor, 1914. Minister Plenipotentiary to Mexico, 1915. Is now Minister at Washington.

KU YUAN.—Secretary, Ministry of the Interior, June, 1912.

KUAN KANG-LIN.—For many years Managing Director of the Peking-Hankow Railway. Director of the Railway Department in the Ministry of Communications, 1917.

KUAN MIEN-CHUN.—Kuangsi. Born 1870. A Chingsu and Hanlin Compiler of the late Dynasty. Was Vice-Director of the Ching-Chang Railway in 33rd year of Kuang Hsu, and has been Director of the Ching-Chang and Chang-Shui Railways since the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Received a 5th class of Chia-ho Order in the 2nd year of the

Republic of China. In the 31st year of Kuang Hsu was appointed second-class secretary to proceed to the United States, Russia, Germany, Austria and Italy with the Investigation Commissioners to study the political situations abroad, and at that time he travelled in Japan, Great Britain, France, Belgium and several other countries.

KUANG FU.—Mongol. Deputy Lieutenant-Governor of Ili, June, 1901. Retired, January, 1908. Acting Tartar General of Ili, June, 1909. Tartar General, April, 1910. Tartar General, Hangchow, February, 1911. Commissioner for Frontier Defence, Ili, May, 1912.

KUANG SUN-MAO.—Kuangtung. Born 1860. A Graduate of Boston University. Engineer-in-Chief of the King-Chang and Chang-Shui Railways, and Superintendent of Workshops, since the 6th month of the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Has successively been Engineer, Engineer-in-Chief, etc., of Tientsin, Tsin-Yu, Outside Shanhaikuan, Ping-Li, Hsinmintun, etc., Railways. Received a 5th class Chia-ho Decoration from the President.

KUNG CHAO-HSIN.—Supervisor of the Canton Customs, 1915.

KUNG CHENG.—Kuangsi. Born 1886. A Graduate of the Japanese Imperial University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

KUNG HSING-CHAN.—Chief of the Salt Bureau, June, 1914. Concurrently Director of the Inspectorate General, 1915. Vice-Minister of Finance.

KUNG HSIN.—Vice-Minister of Gold Mining Bureau, 1915.

KUNG LIN-LO.—Lineal descendant of Confucius. Created Yenshen Kung or Duke, 1915.

KUNG SANG NO ERH PU (Prince Kalaching).—Chief of the Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, September, 1912. Prince of the Right Wing of the Kharach'in Tribe of the Chosot'u League of Inner Mongolia. Promoted from Second to First Class Prince in October, 1912, for loyalty to the Republic.

KUO HSIANG-HSI.—Civil Governor of Kirin. Appointed Chinese President of the Chinese Eastern Railway, 1918.

LAN CHIEN-SHU.—Senior member of Naval General Staff, April, 1912. Commander-in-Chief of the Navy, March, 1918.

LEI CHEN-CHUN.—Anhui. Brigade General, Tungchow, Chihli, May, 1909. Acting Comm. in C. Kiangpeh, April, 1910. Cashiered December, 1910. Deputy Inspector-General of the Southern Seas, August 8, 1913. President of the High Military Court of Peking, 1915.

LI CHAO-HSIANG (CHENG).—Governor of Anhui, 1915. Created Marquis, 2nd Order, December, 1915.

LI CHING-FANG.—Anhui. An adopted son of the late Marquis Li Hung-chang. Minister to Great Britain, May, 1907. Acting Senior Vice-President of the Ministry of Communications, January, 1911. Retired in January, 1912.

LI CH'ING-FANG.—Shansi. Born 1878. A Graduate of Shansi University and a University in Japan. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee and editor of *Hsien Fa Hsin Wen.* Was Chairman of Educational Society of Shansi. Chinputang. Author of *The Construction of a Republic*, etc.

LI CHING-HSI.—Anhui. Yung-Ning Tao, Szechuan, May, 1887. Salt Taotai, Hunan, August, 1893. Jud. Comm., June, 1897. Fin. Comm., Fukien, September, 1898, of Yunnan, January, 1899. Governor, Kuangsi, April, 1901, of Yunnan, June, 1901. Removed from office, May, 1902. Acting Governor of Kueichow, January, 1903. Governor, Kuangsi, May, 1904; retired, ill-health, October, 1905. Governor-General, Yun-Kuei Provinces, February, 1909. Member of the Tsanchengyuan, 1915. Director of the Land Survey Office, 1915. "Friend of Sungchan" (see Hsu Shih-chang). Elected Premier of both Houses of Parliament, May, 1917, but failed to take up appointment before the dissolution of Parliament, June, 1917.

LI CHING-LIEN.—Chihli. Born 1868. Educated in Leng Chi College, Chihli, and a Chengsu of the late Dynasty. Was a Teacher of various High Schools and Universities. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Author of several Chinese poetical and other works which have not yet been printed. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI CHING-MAI.—Anhui. Son of Li Hung-chang. Minister to Austria-Hungary, September, 1905–7: Jud. Comm., Honan, March, 1908; resigned, November, 1908. Acting Junior Vice-President, Minchengpu, March, 1911. Acting Vice-Minister of Yu-chanpu, January, 1912. Relieved of post, January, 1912.

LI CHIN-MIN.—Fukien. Born 1878. Educated in a Japanese University. Chief of the Taxation Department of the Ministry of Finance.

LI CHING-MING.—Secretary, Ministry of Finance, September 1, 1912. Auditor, Audit Bureau, November 22, 1913.

LI CHUN.—Szechuan. Brigade General, Nan-Ao chen, Kuangtung, August, 1905. Acting Brigade General, Pakhoi, July, 1907. In charge of piracy suppression in Canton Waters, 1907-8. Admiral, Kuangtung, July, 1909. Commissioner for Pacification, Kuantung, August 14, 1913. Created (Brevet) General, August 14, 1913.

LI HAN-CH'ENG.—Hunan. Born 1867. Graduate of a University in Japan. Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Established a girls' school in Hengshan. Senior Clerk of the Ministry of Industry and Commerce, July, 1912. Resigned, March, 1913. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI HOU-CHI.—Commandant of Strategic Positions at Woosung, August 19, 1913. Tuchun of Fukien, 1916.

LI HSIEH-YANG.—Yunnan. Born 1881. Engineer. Graduate of Technical Department of Electricity and Railway in the Ohio University, U.S.A. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI K'AI-HSIEN.—Hupeh. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kuangtung, September 13, 1913. Retired, July, 1914.

LI KENG-YUAN.—Yunnan. Member of House of Representatives concerned in the "second revolution" of 1913. Joined Yunnan rebellion, 1915.

LI KUO-CHEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1881. A Graduate of a University in Japan. After returning from Japan was engaged as a Teacher in various Law Schools. Was instrumental in bringing about the Revolution in Kiangsi, and when the people there determined to kill Governor Feng, it was due to his speeches made before a great audience that the Governor was sent out of Kiangsi unmolested. Was a member of the Kiangsi Assembly and the late National Assembly. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Chinputang. Governor of Kuangtung, 1914.

LI LIEH-CHUN.—Studied six years in Japan. Tutuh of Kiangsi: dismissed and ordered to Peking, June 9, 1913. Deprived of all ranks and outlawed for his part in the rebellion, July 15, 1913. Reinstated as Tuchun of Kiangsi, 1916.

LI PING-SHU.—Fengtien. Born 1877. A Graduate of a Normal School in Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was a Teacher and Director of several Normal Schools. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI SHI-WEI.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan. Resigned on becoming President of the Bank of China, 1915.

LI SHUN.—Born 1868. Defence Commissioner, Kiangsi, August 4, 1913. Temporarily in charge as Chief Civil Commissioner, Kiangsi, August 27, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Kiangsi, September 29, 1913. Chiangchun of Kiangsi, 1914. Tuchun of Kiangsu, 1916.

LI SHU-YING.—Shensi. Born 1883. A Graduate of the High School in Shensi, and a University in Japan. Was editor of the *Min Lik Pao*, Shanghai, and was a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking and Provisional National Council in Peking. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI TING-HSIN.—Councillor, Ministry of Navy, September 5, 1912. Chief of Naval General Staff, December 11, 1912. Created Admiral (brevet), August 20, 1913. Commander-in-Chief of the Navy. Director of Kiangnan Arsenal. Cashiered of rank, but retained in office, December, 1915.

LI TING-YU.—Acting Military Assistant Governor of Ulliassutai, August 24, 1912. Acting Deputy Commissioner of Occupation, Kiukiang, August 1, 1913.

LI TSAI-KENG.—Honan. Born 1883. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Was Secretary of the Ministry of Communications and a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking Government. Was editor of *Hsin Hwa Pao*, Tientsin. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Author of *The details of the Mines of Honan*. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI YI-YU.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Pakhoi, April 25, 1913.

LI YING-CH'UAN.—Kuangtung. Born 1876. Graduate of Law School in Kuangtung. Was Director of a Normal School at Kuangtung; Delegate for prison reform at Wenyuenhsien; a practitioner in the local court of Kuangchow; Judge in Yuyuanhsien and Nanhsunghsien; and a lawyer in Kuangchow. Member of the Senate. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LI YUAN-HUNG.—Hupeh. Born in 1864. Studied at the Peiyang Naval College, graduating after a course of six years. Served on a cruiser during the Chino-Japanese war. After the war he was engaged for service at Nanking by Viceroy Chang Chih-tung. On the latter's transfer to Wuchang he accompanied him to assist in the organization of the modern troops there. Thence he went to Japan for two years to study fortifications. On his return he became a Major in the cavalry, and subsequently held several commands, including that of Colonel in the 21st Brigade. He was in charge of the organization of the Changteh manœuvres in 1905, and for the following five years served on the staff at Wuchang. On the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he was coerced into accepting the command of the revolutionary forces, whose operations he directed thenceforward. He was mainly instrumental in arranging for the Shanghai Peace Conference, and after the abdication of the Manchus he was elected Vice-President of the Republic, and appointed Chief of the General Staff and Tutuh of Hupeh. Given rank of General (Shang Chiang) on September 7. Acting Tutuh, Kiangsi, June 8, 1913. Re-elected Vice-President, October 7, 1913. On the death of Yuan Shih-kai, Li Yuan-hung became President of the Republic (June, 1916); he resigned on July 1, 1917, when Chang Hsun carried out his *coup d'état*.

LI YUAN-LIANG.—Shantung. Born 1884. A Graduate of the High Normal School in Shantung. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher to several Schools in Shantung. Chinputang.

LIANG CH'ENG-CHIU.—Kuangtung. Born 1859. A Hsiuchai of the late Ching Dynasty. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Director and Teacher of several Schools, and is now one of the promoters of the Society for the Revival of Confucianism. Chinputang. Author of a poetical work in Chinese. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LIANG CH'I-CH'AO.—A brilliant scholar, who is best known as K'ang Yu-wei's most prominent disciple. Started the first Chinese daily paper in Peking, a small leaflet, containing an editorial only, which was given away gratuitously. Was proscribed, and had to fly for his life, after the *coup d'état* of 1898, and thereafter resided in Japan, where he conducted a paper in Chinese, devoted to the cause of reform. Like K'ang Yu-wei, advocated a limited monarchy in preference to a Republic. Returned to China after the Revolution, and is now conducting a daily paper in Tientsin, advocating the spread of political education, and the diffusion of general knowledge among the Chinese. Appointed Vice-Minister of Justice in Yuan Shih-kai's first Cabinet, but refused to accept office. Editor of *Yung Yen Pao* ("Justice"), a bi-monthly periodical, and one of the chief organizers of the Chinputang. Minister of Justice in Hsiung Hsi-ling's Cabinet, September 11, 1913. Resigned 1914. Appointed Head of Currency Bureau, which was afterwards incorporated in the Ministry of Finance, December, 1914. Appointed Minister of Finance in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917.

LIANG CHING (*see* Chentung Liang Ch'eng).

LIANG JU-HAO (better known as M. T. Liang).—Kuangtung. Educated in America. Taotai, Newchwang, April, 1906. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, April, 1907. Shanghai Taotai, October, 1907. Secretary of Board of Foreign Affairs, March, 1908. Chief Secretary to Government of Fengtien, July, 1908. Recalled to Peking, June, 1909. Vacated office, November, 1909. Offered post of Vice-Minister of Communications in Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet of November 16, 1911, but did not accept. Nominated for the post of Minister of Communications in the first Republican Cabinet, but the nomination was rejected by the National Council. Elected Minister of Foreign Affairs on September 16, resigned November 15, 1912.

LIANG LAI-KUEI.—Cantonese. Graduate of an American Agricultural College. Councillor of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, July 2, 1912. Vice-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry, July 31, 1912. Resigned February, 1913.

LIANG PEI.—Kuangsi. Born 1880. A Graduate of the High Preparatory School at Kuangsi. Was a Teacher to several Schools. During the Revolution he assisted in the capture of the military depôt in Kuangsi. Chairman of Kuomintang branch at Nanning, and editor of the *Minfengpao* and *Hsichiangpao* of Kuangsi. Member of the Senate. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LIANG SHANG-TUNG.—Secretary to the Ministry of War, 1915.

LIANG SHIH-YI.—Kuangtung. Secretary to Tang Shao-yi on the occasion of his mission to India in 1906. Chief of Department of Board of Communications, 1907. Director of Railways in Board of Communications, 1907. Assistant Director of Chiao T'ung Bank,

1907. Senior Secretary of Board of Communications, July, 1909. Vacated appointments of Director of Railways and Assistant Director of Chiao T'ung Bank, February, 1911. Acting Vice-Minister of Communications, November, 1911. Acting Director of Imperial Chinese Posts, December, 1911. Acting Minister of Communications, January to March, 1912. Appointed Chief Secretary in the President's Office after the abdication of the Manchus (April, 1912). Acting Vice-Minister of Finance, May-September, 1913. Member of the Tsangchengyuan (Council of State). Minister of the Shuiwuchu. Director-General of the Customs Administration, 1915. Director-General of the Bureau of Taxes, 1915. Speaker of the Senate May–October, 1918.

LIANG TUN-YEN.—Kuangtung. Educated in America. For several years interpreter to Viceroy Chang Chih-tung. Customs Taotai, Hankow, October, 1903, and at Tientsin, October, 1904. Minister to America, May, 1907 (but did not proceed). Junior Vice-President of Board of Foreign Affairs, July, 1908. Acting President of same Board, January, 1909. President of Board of Foreign Affairs, January, 1909. Associate Controller of Grand Revenue Council, March, 1910. Retired on account of illness, July, 1910. Minister to America, 1911. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs in Prince Ching's Cabinet of May, 1911, and Yuan Shih-kai's Cabinet of November, 1911, but did not return to China to take up the post. Minister of Communications, 1915.

LIAO HSI-HSIEN.—Szechuan. Born 1885. A Graduate of Tungwen College in Szechuan, and a University in Japan. Was editor of *Szechuan Jih Pao*, and he established a Finance College in Szechuan, which at present has more than 500 students. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kunghotang.

LIEN WEN-CH'ENG.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Changchun, April 25, 1913.

LIN LO-CHUAN.—Fukien. Born 1879. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Editor of several Fukien newspapers. Chairman of the Association of the Representatives of Chinese Residents Abroad.

LING CHANG-MING.—Secretary to the Council of State, 1915. Minister of Justice, July, 1917.

LIN PO-HO.—Kuangtung. Born 1875. Established a Po-Ai Hospital in Chunhwahsien, and was Director for two years. Was four years Director of a Middle School in Au-men. In the time of Revolution he was appointed by the Tutuh of Kuangtung Pacificator of San Lo, and after two months he was made the Chief of General Department under the magistracy of Shuntehhsien. A member of the Y.M.C.A. Committee in Canton. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LIU CH'ANG-PING.—Acting Legal Commissioner, Sinkiang, December 16, 1912. Acting Head of Law Preparation Department, Sinkiang, January 19, 1913.

LIU CHENG-YUAN.—Assistant-Director of the Military Affairs of Shensi.

LIU CHIH-CHIEH.—Commissioner of Defence and Commander of 19th Army Corps, Kiangpeh, May, 1912. Commissioner of Occupation of Soochow, August 27, 1913.

LIU CHIH-CHOW.—Shensi. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Shanghai Li-hua College. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After returning to his native place from Shanghai, he was engaged as Lecturer in several Schools. When his Province adopted the cause of Revolution, local "tufeis" arose and he trained a band of volunteers to suppress them, and he also held Fengcheng against Sheng Yun for more than seventy days, until the inauguration of the Republic. Chenyuhui.

LIU CHING-JEN.—Minister to Holland, September, 1911. Minister to Russia, September, 1912.

LIU CHU-WU.—General. Appointed Civil Governor of Yunnan on outbreak of revolt, 1915.

LIU CHUANG-SHOU.—Councillor, Ministry of Navy, December, 1912. Counsellor of the Chiangchunfu, April, 1918.

LIU FENG-SHU.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Ichang, April 15, 1913.

LIU HUAI-SEN.—Acting Commissioner of Occupation of Kiukiang, August 4, 1913.

LIU HSIEN-SHIH.—Chiangchun and Acting Civil Governor of Kueichow. Ordered to vacate his post, February, 1916. (Joined Yunnan revolt.)

LIU JO-TSENG.—Chihli. Chinkiang Taotai, January, 1906. Proctor, Bureau of Government Administration, June, 1906. Vice-Director of High Court of Justice, November, 1906. High Commissioner for Revision of Law, March, 1911. Resigned May, 1912. Provincial Treasurer, Chihli, December, 1912. Acting Chief Civil Commissioner, Chihli, July 7, 1913.

LIU KAN.—Shensi. Born 1874. Graduate of Hengtao College. A Hsiu-tsai of the late Dynasty. The Speaker of the Shensi Assembly. Was a Teacher at several Schools, and was Vice-Speaker of the Provisional Assembly of Shensi. Kuomintang.

LIU KUAN-HSIUNG.—Fukien. Educated at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, and subsequently given a commission in the Chinese Navy. Distinguished himself at the Battle of the Yalu in the China-Japan war. Appointed Minister of the Navy in the first Republican Cabinet, which post he has held ever since. Admiral Liu was a member of the National Council at Nanking, and also of the Southern Delegation which was sent to Peking to congratulate President Yuan Shih-kai upon his election. Acting Minister of Communications in July. Acting Minister of Education, January 13. Inspector-General of Southern Seas, August 14, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Fukien (additional), November, 1913. Minister of the Navy, July, 1917.

LIU KUEI-YI.—Hunan. Educated in Japan, where he studied law and politics. Formerly edited several papers, and it was as a journalist that he achieved distinction during the Revolution. Minister of Commerce and Industry, August, 1912. Resigned July 18, 1913.

LIU LIEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1875. Studied Law in Japan. Was Teacher to several Government and private Schools in his own Province. Was for six months Chief of the Department of Justice in Kiangsi. Chief of the Commission for the examination of judicial officials. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LIU P'ÊNG SHOU.—Chihli. Born 1875. Graduate of Chihli High Normal School. Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Since the 33rd year of Kuang Hsu he was engaged as a Teacher in various High Schools in Chihli. Was a member of Red Cross Society during the Revolution; and established twelve Primary and High Schools in his native place during the past ten years. Member of Chihli Assembly, and President of the Committee of the House, June, 1912. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Address: Mo Pan Yuan. Author of *Outlines of Military History for Normal Schools*, and *Outlines of the History of the West.*

LIU SHIH-HSÜN.—Kiangsu. Born 1868. Studied French for fifteen years both at Shanghai and Peking. Was Chinese Minister to France, and Acting Minister to Germany and Portugal. Member of the Arbitration Department of The Hague. President's Adviser on Foreign Affairs. Vice-Minister of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, January to August 8, 1913. Resigned. Special Commissioner Foreign Affairs, Shanghai.

LIU SUNG-HUI.—Director of the River Conservancy in Honan, 1915. Assistant Resident at Kobdo, 1915.

LIU YÜAN.—Vice-Minister of Commerce, October 25, 1913.

LIU YUK-LIN.—Consul-General in South Africa, October, 1904. Attached to Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1908. Chinese Representative at the International Opium Commission, Shanghai, January, 1909. Junior Councillor, Waiwupu, July, 1910. Minister to Great Britain, September, 1910–4.

LO CHIA-HENG.—Kiangsi. Born 1883. Graduate of a University in Japan. Established a Law School in Kiangsi and was teacher there. When the Revolution broke out in Wuchang, was appointed Chief of the Bureau of Civil Affairs, Kiangsi. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

LO P'AN-HUI.—Kuangtung. Born 1881. Graduate of Tientsin University; of Harvard University and Chicago University, U.S.A. Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Kuangtung, April 25, 1913. In 1911 during the Revolution he was appointed an official of the Legislative Bureau and Vice-Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, Kuangtung, and then Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs. Kuomintang. Author of *The Laws of China* in English.

LO PEI-CHIN.—Yunnan. Born 1879. A Graduate of the Military Officers' Training School. Major-General of the Army. While in Japan he edited a periodical called *Yunnan Cha Chih*, which promulgated revolutionary doctrines. Invited to Yunnan by Viceroy Li Ching-hsi, and given various appointments. Before the Revolution was appointed Brigadier of the 74th Brigade. By the help of General Tsai Ao the whole Province was captured and troubles from local "tufeis" suppressed. Was appointed Military Delegate to Peking, and Military Councillor of the President's Office. Chief Civil Administrator of Yunnan, January, 1913; resigned April 4, 1913. Tuchun of Szechuan.

LO TSUNG-YEE.—Fukien. Born 1886. Cambridge University; B.A. (Economics Tripos). A Chin-shih and Hanlin Compiler of the late Dynasty. English Secretary to the Governor of Kuangsi, 1909. Joined Wai-wu Pu, 1910. Transferred to the Chiao-tung Pu on the establishment of the Republic. Director of the College of Communications, 1912. Secretary in the President's Office and Member of the Office of the Master of Ceremonies, 1913. First Secretary of the Chinese Legation in London, July, 1914.

LU CHENG-HSIANG.—Kiangsu. Interpreter of the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, 1890. Attaché, 1892. Secretary, 1895. Deputed to accompany the Chinese Envoy Extraordinary to the Coronation of the Tsar. Chinese Delegate at The Hague Conference in 1899. Minister to the Netherlands, 1905. Delegate at the Second Hague Conference in 1907. Minister to Holland (renewed) in 1908. Negotiated the Consular Convention with Holland. Sent to The Hague to exchange ratifications of this Convention in 1911, and thence proceeded to St. Petersburg to undertake negotiations with the Russian Government for the revision of the Treaty of 1881. Appointed Minister to Russia. Elected Minister of Foreign Affairs in the first Republican Cabinet, and arrived at Peking on May 24th to take up the post. When Tang Shao-yi, the Premier, was granted sick leave in June, Lu was appointed Acting Premier, and on the acceptance of Tang's resignation he was elected Premier, but retained the portfolio of Foreign Affairs. He belongs to no party. He was on sick leave during August and September, and resigned the Premiership on September 23. On the resignation of Liang Ju-hao he was appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs, November 15, 1912. Resigned September 4, 1913. Master of Ceremonies at the President's Inauguration. Acting Secretary of State and Minister of Foreign Affairs, 1915.

LU HAI-HUAN.—Chihli. Minister to Germany, June, 1897. President of Censorate, August, 1901. Minister of Foreign Affairs, November. 1901. Commissioner for Treaty Revision, 1902. President of Board of War, January, 1906. Again Minister of Foreign Affairs, June, 1907. President of Revenue Council, September, 1907. Director-General of Tientsin-Pukow Railway, January, 1908, from which post he was removed in July, 1909. Placed in charge of Red

Cross work, by Imperial Decree, during the Revolution, an appointment which was confirmed by the President in September, 1912.

LU HSÜEH-CHIH.—Shensi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Acting Secretary of the Ministry of Education, appointed May 17, 1913. Was director of the Agriculture College, Hunan, and teacher of a High School, Kiangsu. Was Chief of Technical Department of the Ministry of Education.

LU HUNG-YING.—Military Governor of the East Circuit in Kansu, 1915. Vice-President of the Law Compilation Bureau, 1918.

LU PEN-CHUAN.—Delegate for Foreign Affairs, Shasi, April 15, 1913.

LU PI.—Secretary, Department of Civil Service. Cabinet, August 17, 1912. Secretary to Cabinet, October 18, 1912.

LU TIAO-YUAN.—Governor of Shensi, 1915.

LU TING.—Acting Councillor, Ministry of Finance, January 23, 1913. Councillor, Ministry of Finance, April 1, 1913.

LU TING.—Kiangsu. Born 1873. Studied in Japan. Was Chief of the Audit Department in the Ministry of Finance, Chief Secretary of Chu Cheng Yuan, and is Councillor to the Ministry of Finance and member of several Committees of the Ministry. Kuomintang. Author of *Banking Systems*, etc.

LU TSUNG-YÜ.—Chekiang. Born 1875. A Graduate of a University in Japan, and was appointed to accompany the Commissioners to foreign countries to study political affairs. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan, and Chairman of the Committee of the Bank of Communications. Was a Teacher in the Government University in Peking, 1902; Chief Secretary in Chungwenmen Octroi, 1903; studied politics in foreign countries, 1904; a member of the Chu Cheng Yuan, 1909; Vice-President of the Board of Finance, 1911. Chinputang. Author of *The Currency*, etc. Minister plenipotentiary to Japan, 1915. Manager-in-Chief of the Currency System Bureau.

LU YUN-HSIANG.—Military Commissioner of Shanghai.

LU YUNG-TING.—Native of Kuangsi. At one time a leader of bandits, but reclaimed and took military service under Government. Commander of an expedition under Viceroy Tsen Chun-hsuan against bandits in Kuangsi. Formerly a Brigade-General of the troops on the left bank of the West River. Tutuh of Kuangsi, 1914, afterwards Chiangchun. In the Civil War of 1917–18 joined the South and became Minister of War in the Canton Government.

LUNG CHIEN-CHANG.—Councillor, Ministry of Communications, May, 1912. Civil Governor of Kueichow, 1914; cashiered January, 1916.

LUNG CHI-KUANG.—Yunnan. Tso-Chiang Tao Kuangsi, January, 1908. Commander-in-Chief, Kuangsi, March, 1909. Pacificator, Kuangtung, July 26, 1913. Tutuh and Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Kuangtung, August 3, 1913. Additionally to Command the Water Police, and Ships of War on the West River and coasts of Kuangtung, August 22, 1913. Chiangchun, Kuangtung, 1914. Field-Marshal. Created Duke of the First Order, December, 1915. Created Prince of the second degree for services in Yunnan, January, 1916.

LUNG CHIN-KUANG.—Younger brother of the above. General. Military Governor of Canton and Huichow. Appointed (1916) High Commissioner of Investigation in Yunnan.

MA AN-LIANG.—Kansu. Brigade-General, Ili, October, 1903. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, April, 1912.

MA CHENG-PING.—Taoyin of the Liukiang Circuit in Kuangsi, 1915.

MA CHIN-HSU.—Anhui. Formerly Brigade-General in several places. Commander-in-Chief, Kansu, February, 1912. Commander-in-Chief, Chihli, April, 1912.

MA FU-HSIANG.—Kansu. Brigade-General, Palikun, New Dominion, March, 1909. Acting Chief Executive Officer, Kokonor, July–August, 1912. Commander of Guards Division, Altai, October 10, 1912.

MA LIANG.—Acting President of Peking Government University, October 18, 1912 ; resigned, December 27, 1912. Appointed one of President's nominees on Political Council, November, 1913.

MA LUNG-PIAO.—Lieutenant-General, Mongol Red Banner, January, 1911. Commander of 5th Division, Assistant Commissioner for Defence of Shantung, March, 1912.

MA SHAO CHIN.—Kuangtung. Born 1887. Studied in the following schools : School of Political Science, Canton ; St. Stephen's College, Hongkong ; Columbia University, U.S.A., and New York University, U.S.A. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was an officer of the Southern Branch of Tung Meng Hui eight years ago. Was editor of several papers and periodicals, and has been Peking correspondent to several papers and periodicals. Kuomintang. Author of *The Diary of a Travel*, *The Literature of the World*, *The Diary of Shiao-cheng*, *The Latest General Outline of Finances*, *Liberty of the Citizens*, and *The Suffragists*. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

MA TSUNG-FAH.—Military Governor of the Chaochow Circuit in Kuangtung, 1915.

MAO CHI-CHENG.—Councillor, Ministry of War, December 12, 1912.

MEI KUANG-HSI.—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Graduate of a University in Japan, and Chujen of the late Ching Dynasty. Started various colleges at Hupeh ; introduced the system of Procuratorate and Prison Reform in Hupeh and Kuangtung ; started the Library in the Government University at Peking ; and established the Society for the Investigation of Buddhism at Hupeh and the Buddhist Society at Peking. Is the author of *Outlines of Buddhist Doctrines.* Chief of the Department of Navigation of the Ministry of Communications, 1914.

Meng Hsien-yu (Meng En-yuan).—Governor of Kirin, 1915.

Mou Chi-cheng.—Shantung. Born 1879. Graduate of Poiyang Military School; after having graduated in a Japanese college, he again graduated in the Japanese Institute for Military Officers. Major-General, November, 1st year of the Chinese Republic, and appointed Councillor of the Ministry of War the same month. After returning from Japan at the end of the reign of Kuang Hsu he was made Tutor and Director of several Military Schools; was Brigadier of the Mixed Brigade of Shensi, 2nd year of Hsuan Tung; was the Chief Councillor for military affairs in Shensi; and Councillor for Military Affairs in the President's office. A non-partisan. Translated several military works.

Mu Chao-jen.—Shantung. Born 1879. Graduate of the Normal School in Shantung. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Has hitherto been engaged in educational works for more than ten years. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

Mu Lin.—Kueichow. Born 1877. Graduate of a Normal School in Japan, and a Chujen of the late Dynasty. In the 1st year of Hsuang Tung he was elected member of the Chu Yi Chu of Kueichow, and a member of Chu Cheng Yuan. Established more than 100 primary schools. Chinputang. Member of the Chun Yi Yuan.

Nan Kuo-chün.—Governor of Hunan, 1915.

Na Tung.—Manchu. Sub-Chancellor, Grand Secretariat, December, 1899. Minister, Tsung-li Yamen, June, 1900. Junior Vice-President, Board of Revenue, November, 1900. Special Embassy to Japan, July, 1901, when he ceased to be Minister of Tsung-li Yamen. Minister, Board of Foreign Affairs, February, 1902. President, Board of Revenue, June, 1903. President, Board of Foreign Affairs, and member of Finance Committee, November, 1903. Grand Secretary, January, 1906. Member Revenue Council, January, 1908. Inspector-General of Troops, November, 1908. Junior Guardian of Heir-Apparent, December, 1908. Grand Councillor, January, 1909. Acting Viceroy of Chihli, June, 1909. Appointed Vice-Premier on the formation of Prince Ching's Cabinet in May, 1911. Relieved of office, and made Vice-President of the Privy Council on November 1, 1911. Retired into private life during the latter stages of the Revolution, and lived at Tsingtao.

Na Yen-t'u (Prince Na).—Mongol. A Prince of the First Order, and Jassak of the Khalka Mongols. Superintendent of Customs at Peking, September, 1896. Grand Chamberlain, November, 1903. Lieutenant-General of Bordered Yellow Banner, 1903. One of the Mongolian members of the National Council and of the Kung-ho-tang, and Tartar General of Tarbagatai, 1914.

Nemokawangton.—Mongol. Duke of the 2nd Order of the Right Banner of New Tulwood. Prince of the 3rd Order, February, 1916.

NI SZU-CH'UNG.—Acting Commissioner for Internal Affairs, Heilungkiang, August, 1908; substantive, April, 1909; degraded, December, 1909. Provincial Treasurer, Honan, December, 1911; relieved, July 21, 1912. Appointed to reorganize Honan Frontier Affairs, July 5, 1912. Occupation Commissioner, Huanpei (Anhui Northern Circuit), July 22, 1913; additionally, Huanpei Intendent, July 22, 1913. Tutuh of Anhui, and additionally Acting Civil Administrator, July 27, 1913. Field-Marshal, 1915. Created Duke of the First Order, December, 1915. Remained in Anhui as Tuchun; resigned October, 1918.

NIU CH'UAN-SHAN.—Director of the Sale of Tobacco and Wines, 1915.

NIU YUNG-CHIEN.—Councillor to President, April 19, 1912. Joined the rebellion of 1913 and outlawed.

OU-YANG CH'I.—Kiangsi. Born 1878. Studied in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Director and Engineer of the Yukan Coal Mine in Kiangsi, and was an Assistant of the War Office at Kiukiang during the time of the Revolution. Kuomintang. Author of *Essays on Kungyang*, *Kuliang*, *and the Book of Rites*, *A Collection of Poems*, *Old Chinese Mining Methods and the Implements used*, a few novels,. and other works. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

OU-YANG WU.—Defence Commissioner, Kiukiang. Dismissed and degraded, July 31, 1913. Brought to Peking for trial, and sentenced to eight years' imprisonment. Specially pardoned by the President.

PAI CH'ANG-CHIEH.—Shensi. Born 1870. Graduate of a University in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

P'A LO-TA.—Administrator of Altai, May, 1912.

PAN HSUEH-HAI.—Kiangsi. Born 1876. A Graduate of a University in Japan. Chief of the Kiangsi Bureau of Legislature for one year, after the Revolution, and member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Non-partisan. Translated into Chinese a Japanese book on *The Constitution of the Japanese Empire*. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

P'AN TSU-YI.—Fukien. Born 1882. Graduate of Fukien High School, and a returned student from Japan. In 1912, editor of the *Chung Pao* in Fukien, but the paper was closed by force by Pan Shiao-sung. In the same year was elected member of the Fukien Assembly, and a member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Is connected with several commercial enterprises, such as tea, paper, silk, and medicine. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

PEI CHI-HSÜN.—Chiangchun of Kirin, 1915.

P'ENG T'EO-SHENG. General. In command of troops on the Tibetan frontier, 1910–18. Besieged by Tibetans in Chamdo for three months; capitulated April, 1918.

Pi Kuei-fang.—Councillor at Tarbagatai, May, 1912. Temporarily in charge as Tutuh and Chief Civil Administrator, Heilungkiang, July 16, 1913. Promoted full General of Manchu Banner Forces, November 28, 1913.

Pi Wei.—Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Anhui, April 15, 1913.

Po Wen-wei.—Tutuh of Anhui, July, 1912. Educated in the Military Academy, Wuchang. Commander of Battalion of 9th Division at Chinkiang, 1911. After the fall of Nanking took an expeditionary force to Pukow and defeated the Imperialists. Given rank of Chung Chiang (Lieutenant-General) in October, 1912. Frontier Commissioner of Shensi and Kansu, June 30, 1913. Deprived of all ranks for participation in the rebellion, July 27, 1913.

Pu-er-ko-t'ê.—Outer Mongolia. Born 1869. Visited Japan in March of 28th year of Kuang Hsu. Educated in Chinese and Mongolian literature. A Mongolian Meilin, representing the tribe of Cha-sa-ko-tu of Outer Mongolia. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Address: Sha Lo Hutung.

P'u Jun.—Imperial Clansman. Vice-President of Board of Works in October, 1903. Assistant Military Governor, Kobdo, May, 1908. Vacated office and came to Peking for service, September, 1911. Military Governor of Uliassutai, May, 1912.

P'u Lun (Prince).—Imperial Clansman. Great-grandson of the Emperor Tao Kuang, who died in 1850. Prince of the Fourth Order. Vice-President of Imperial Clan Court, September, 1900. Lieutenant-General, Bordered Yellow Banner, February, 1901. Imperial Commissioner, St. Louis Exposition, 1904. Superintendent, Peking Octroi, September, 1907. President of the National Assembly during period of organization and its first session (September, 1907, to January 11, 1911). Appointed Minister of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry, spring, 1911. Removed from office during the Revolution. Among Chinese he is the most popular member of the Imperial Clan. He was one of the few Princes who did not flee from Peking on the inauguration of the Republic. Represents Imperial Family at most Republican functions.

Pun Kuang-lieh.—Military Councillor at the Chiangchünfu.

P'u Yi (Hsuan Tung), Ex-Emperor.—Son of Prince Ch'un (Tsai Feng) and nephew of the Emperor Kuang Hsu. Born on February 11, 1906. Succeeded to the Throne, under the Regency of his father, on November 14, 1908, and adopted the reign-title of Hsuan Tung. Abdicated on February 12, 1912. His mother is the daughter of the late Jung Lu. Under the Republic the ex-Emperor continued his studies under his old tutors. On June 30, 1917, Chang Hsun carried out a *coup d'état* in Peking and proclaimed the restoration of the Manchu Dynasty. Hsuan Tung ascended the throne, but the "monarchy" survived little more than a week and once again his name was affixed to an "abdication."

SA CHEN-PING.—Fukien. Brigade-General, Nan-Ao-Chen Kuangtung, 1902. Admiral commanding Peiyang Squadron, 1903. Admiral, Kuangtung, August, 1905. Commander-in-Chief, land and sea. Kuangtung, November, 1906. Land command withdrawn, January, 1908. Commissioner for Naval Reorganization, February, 1909, High Commissioner for Naval Reorganization, June, 1909. Vacated office, July, 1909. Admiral of the Fleet, July, 1909. Accompanied Prince Tsai Hsun on naval mission to Europe, October, 1909 ; and to Japan and America, August, 1910. In command of Imperial naval forces during Revolution. Took a naval force up to Hankow, but owing to lack of supplies and continual defections among his crews was forced to vacate his command and escaped to North China. Director-General of Land and River Police, Shanghai and Woosung, August 14, 1913. High Inspector of Kuangtung and Fukien, 1917.

SAO-KE ALFRED SZE.—Chekiang. Educated in America, at Cornell University. Acting Junior Secretary, Board of Communications, December, 1906. Removed from office, January, 1907. For some time Managing Director of the Luhan Railway. A Director of the Northern Railways, 1908. Customs Taotai, Harbin, spring, 1908. Acting Commissioner for Foreign Affairs, Kirin, July, 1910. Junior Councillor, Board of Foreign Affairs, August, 1910 ; Senior Councillor, August, 1911. Imperial Commissioner to the International Plague Conference at Mukden, April, 1911. Nominated Chinese Minister to America, Peru, Mexico, and Cuba just after the outbreak of the Revolution, but did not proceed. Minister of Posts and Communications, and for a time Acting Minister of Finance, in the first Republican Cabinet. Resigned on account of ill-health in June. Is related, by marriage, to Tang Shao-yi. Appointed Officer of Ceremonies at the President's Office, December 27, 1913. Minister to Great Britain, June 20, 1914.

SHANG CHÊN-KUEI.—Shensi. Born 1874. Graduate of a Technical School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was Teacher at a Middle School in Tungchow, and Chairman of the Educational Society of Taliehsien, and was the Representative of Tutuh Chang in Shanghai and Hankow during the Revolution. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

SHEN CHIA-YI.—President of the High Court of Justice in Fengtien, 1915.

SHEN CHI CH'ANG.—President of the High Court of Justice in Kuangtung, 1915.

SHEN CHUN-YEH.—Commissioner of Education, Chekiang, August, 1912.

SHEN JUI-LIN.—Attached to Waiwupu, 1908. Minister at Vienna, August, 1910.

SHEN KING-CHIEN.—Governor of Hunan, 1915.

SHEN PAO-CHANG.—Prefect of Shanghai, 1915.

Shen Tseng-yueh.—Acting Superintendent of Bank of Kuangsi.

Shen Yun-p'ei.—Senior Secretary, Board of Commerce, January, 1907. Junior Vice-President do., March, 1908. Assistant Director, Tientsin-Pukow Railway, July, 1909. Acting President, Board of Communications, August 10. Acting Junior Vice-President, Board of Civil Appointments, January, 1911. Vacated office June, 1911, but retained post of Assistant Manager, Tientsin-Pukow Railway. Advisory Minister, Privy Council, August, 1911. Manager of Pukow-Hsingyang Railway, January 13, 1913.

Sheng Hsuan-huai (Sheng Kung-pao).—Kiangsu. Taotai, Chefoo, July, 1886. Director of Chinese Telegraph Administration, and one of the largest shareholders in the China Merchants' S.N. Company and the Hanyang Ironworks. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, June, 1892. Administrator-General of the Lu-Han and Southern Railways, October, 1896. Sub-Director of Court of Sacrificial Worship, November, 1896. Vice-Director of Imperial Clan Court, June, 1912. Junior Guardian of Heir-Apparent, December, 1901. Senior Vice-President of Board of Works, February, 1902. Commissioner for Treaty Revision, 1902. Junior Vice-President, Board of Communications, March, 1908. Reappointed Commissioner for Treaty Revision, March, 1908. President of Red Cross Society, February, 1910. Especially appointed to assist Board of Finance in currency matters, August, 1910. Vice-President, and subsequently President of the Board of Communications, 1911, in which post he negotiated the Hukuang Railway Loan, involving the nationalization of the trunk lines of the Chinese railway system. This policy aroused fierce opposition, resulted in a serious revolt in Szechuan in August, and contributed in a large measure to the outbreak of the Revolution in Hupeh. Dismissed with disgrace on October 26, and escorted to Tientsin by representatives of the British, French, German and American Legations. Thence he escaped to Tsingtao, and after a short stay there took up his residence in Japan. Died 1916.

Shi Tso-ling.—Fukien. Born 1865. Graduate of the former Naval School at Tientsin. Captain of the Navy, and Chief of the Naval Education Department. Non-partisan.

Shiao Ch'ang-jung.—Kiangsu. Born 1863. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

Shih Pin-chen.—Member for Yunnan of the National Council.

Shih Shao-ch'ang.—Chekiang. Born 1872. Chujen. Secretary to the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, 28th year of Kuang Hsu. Chinese Secretary to the Second Peace Conference at The Hague. First Secretary in the Chinese Legation at The Hague, and also First Secretary of the Chinese Legation in Rome. In the 1st year of Hsuan Tung he acted as Minister to Germany, and returned to China in the 2nd year. Is now Departmental Chief of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Author of *Comment on the Sino-Russian Treaty*. Chinese Consul-General in the Philippines, 1915.

SHIH TSE-HSIEN.—Shantung. Born 1884. Studied in a University in Japan. During Revolution was appointed Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs in the Tutuh's office, and then a member of the Advisory Council in Nanking. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and a member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Has formed a Society for the Cultivation and Colonization of the Frontiers, and has raised a capital of more than $500,000 to start colonization and cultivation in Kirin and other places. Non-partisan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

SHIH YU.—Educated in Europe. Councillor, Privy Council, August, 1911. Deputy Commissioner, Constitutional Department of Cabinet, February, 1912. Chief of Legislation Bureau and Chief of Bureau for Codification of Law, July, 1912.

SHU HUNG-YI—Anhui. Born 1868. Studied in the Government University in Peking, and was appointed to proceed to Japan to investigate the police system. Is now Chief of Civil Affairs, Department of the Ministry of the Interior. Was Director of the Government Mint in Fengtien, and was appointed to start the Electric Light Company there. Chinputang. Author of *Diary of the Investigation of the Police System in Japan*, and *The Yiyuan Poetry*.

SING TSEN-SENG.—Son of the Rev. Sing Eng-teh. Educated at the C.M.S. School and Trinity College, Ningpo, where he subsequently became a Master and Headmaster. Ordained Deacon, October 20, 1889. Pastor of Ningpo City, 1911. Archdeacon of the Diocese of Chekiang. Pastor at Hangchow, 1917. Consecrated as first Chinese Anglican Bishop (of the Chung Hua Sheng Kung Hui), October 2, 1918.

SSU TU-YING.—Kuangtung. A Graduate of the Normal College of Peking University, a member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Kuangtung members of the National Council.

SU K'AN-SHIH.—Hunan. Born 1879. Studied in Japan. Was Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, and Supervisor of Changsha and Yochow Customs. Resigned June, 1913, and since then he has been High Adviser of the Tutuh of Hunan. Was Vice-Speaker of Hunan Chu Yi Chu. Non-partisan.

SU, Prince (Shan Ch'i).—Manchu. A member of the eight princely families. Vice-President, Imperial Clan Court, September, 1900. Superintendent of Customs and Octroi at Peking, December, 1900. General Commandant, Peking Gendarmerie, May, 1902. Comptroller General, Mongolian Superintendency, November, 1905. Special Mission to Mongolia, summer, 1906. Comptroller-General, Imperial Clan Court, November, 1906. President, Board of Interior, June, 1907. Commissioner of Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Minister of the Interior in Prince Ching's Cabinet, May, 1911. Gave up all offices during the Revolution.

SU YÜ-FANG.—Fengtien. A Graduate of the Law School in Fengtien. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. In the 2nd year of Hsuang Tung he organized the Tung Tze Hui, with the object of demanding a Parliament: he gathered together more than 5000 students, and by their earnestness, Viceroy Hsi Liang promised to memoralize the Throne for them. Was imprisoned 27 days for being suspected as revolutionist, when securing arms for Pao An Hui. Chinputang.

SUN CHING-CH'ING.—Szechuan. Born 1884. Studied in Japan, and a Graduate of the Law College in Peking. Was Magistrate of Hsiangcheng, Honan; was one of the promoters of the Shanghai Chung Kuo Kung Hsueh; and was teacher to several Law Schools. Is now a lawyer and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Author of *The Principles of the Constitution of the Ching Dynasty*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

SUN JUN-YU.—Kiangsu. Born 1878. A Graduate of Peiyang University and a Law School in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan and the Constitution-Drafting Committee. Kuomintang. Author of *Outlines of Administration*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

SUN P'EI.—Anhui. Born 1880. Studied in the Imperial University in Japan. A Councillor of Political Affairs to the President: a member of Committee in the Cabinet: a delegate for the Preparation of the National Assembly: and a Councillor of the Ministry of the Interior. A member of the Committee of the Chinputang. Author of the *Spirit of the Constitution*, etc.

SUN PAO-CH'I.—Minister to France, June, 1902. Chief Secretary, Government Council, summer, 1906. Governor of Peking, autumn, 1906. Minister to Germany, April, 1907–December, 1908. Assistant Director-General Tientsin-Pukow Railway, September, 1908. Returned to Peking, January, 1909. Acting Governor (June, 1909) and Governor (November, 1910) of Shantung. Shantung prematurely proclaimed its independence, and Sun Pao-ch'i accepted the post of President of the Province on November 15. On November 29, two days after the recapture of Hanyang, it returned to the Imperial fold, whereupon Sun tendered his resignation in a penitent memorial. He was pardoned by the Throne, but resigned in December, 1911. Director-General of Revenue Council (Act.), May 11, 1913. Minister of Foreign Affairs, September 11, 1913. Director of the Audit Office, 1915. Resigned, January, 1916.

SUN SHI-YI.—Consul-General in Cuba.

SUN TAO-JEN.—Hunan. Formerly expectant Taotai of Fukien. Transferred to the military service, and appointed Brigade-General of the Foochow-Kienningfu military circuit, and Commander of the Ninth Division. Elected Tutuh of Fukien on the outbreak of the Revolution.

SUN TO-SEN.—Anhui. Intendent of Industry, Chihli, March, 1910; vacated, January, 1912. Industrial Commissioner, Anhui, May, 1912; vacated May, 1912. Manager, Bank of China, December

23, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator and additionally Acting Tutuh, Anhui, June 30, 1913. Relieved of both posts, July 27, 1913.

SUN WEN (*see* Sun Yat-sen).

SUN WU.—A noted Hupeh revolutionary, whose accident with a bomb in the Russian Concession at Hankow in October, 1911, led to the discovery of the revolutionary headquarters, and precipitated the Revolution. Sun Wu was injured by the explosion, and owed his life to the devotion of his friends, who succeeded in concealing him in a place of safety until he had recovered. He subsequently played a prominent part in the events of the Revolution at Wuchang, becoming Chief of the Military Department in that city. It was mainly through his instrumentality that the counter-revolutionary plot hatched at Wuchang in August was frustrated. Educated at the Military Academy, Wuchang. After a visit to Japan he returned and opened schools with the object of spreading revolutionary ideas. Connected with the Changsha riots of 1910. In February, 1911, when in Wuchang, he arranged with Huang Hsing for a simultaneous outbreak in Wuchang and Canton in May. The latter plot miscarried, but Sun Wu's opportunity came with the subsequent railway unrest. Instrumental in forming the Kunghotang Party.

SUN YAT-SEN (Sun Wen).—Kuangtung. Born in 1867, the son of a London Mission convert and employee. Learnt English at an early age, and was employed by Dr. Kerr of the Anglo-American Mission. Enrolled as a student of the Alice Memorial Hospital at Hongkong in 1887, whence he graduated as "Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery, Hongkong," in 1892. Started to practise in Macao, where he became a member of the Young China Party. Subsequently settled in Canton, where he became an active revolutionary. After the failure of a conspiracy at Canton in 1895 he fled to Macao, and thence proceeded to Hongkong, Japan, Honolulu and America, in all of which places he obtained adherents to the Reform Party. Arrived in England in 1896, and on October 11 of that year was kidnapped outside the Chinese Legation by orders of the Chinese Minister. It was intended to ship Dr. Sun to China as a lunatic, but he managed to make his plight known to Dr. Cantlie, who was instrumental in effecting his release after twelve days' imprisonment. Subsequently Dr. Sun toured through Europe, America and the East as a revolutionary propagandist. In Japan (with General Huang Hsing) he was instrumental in founding the Tung Meng Hui. Was in England when the Wuchang outbreak occurred, but came out to China at the end of 1911, and was elected Provisional President of the Republic by the Nanking Council. Resigned from the Presidency on the abdication of the Manchus, on the understanding that Yuan Shih-kai should be elected to succeed him, and proceeded on a tour to Wuchang and South China, where he advocated a socialistic policy. Came to Peking at the President's request in August, 1912, and was accorded an enthusiastic welcome. Advocated an extensive programme of railway construction, and on September 10 was appointed by the President "to consider and draft plans for a national system of railways," and to "submit and discuss the same with international financiers." Visited Kalgan, and on September 17 left for Taiyuanfu and Shanghai. Strongly advocated the transfer of the capital from Peking to Wuchang or Nanking. His authority as Chief of the National Railway Corporation was cancelled on the outbreak of the rebellion, and Dr. Sun subsequently took up his residence in Japan.

SUNG FA-HSIANG.—Fukien. Born 1882. B.A. of Wesley (?) University, U.S.A., and M.A. of Chicago University, U.S.A. Technical Expert of the Ministry of Finance, and in August, 1913, was sent to America to learn the management of Mints. Non-partisan.

SUNG HSIAO-LIEN.—Acting Commissioner of Internal Affairs, Heilungkiang, March, 1911, and Commissioner, December, 1911. Tutuh of Heilungkiang, 1914.

SUNG LIEN-KUEI.—Director-General of Mining Operations for the province of Yunnan.

SZE, ALFRED.—*See* Sao-Ke Alfred Sze.

SZE SAO-TSENG.—Brother of the former. Chekiang. Attaché to Chinese Legation, Washington, 1893–95. Consul, New York, 1896–97. Commissioner of the Shanghai-Nanking Railway, 1905–7. Assistant Director of the Peking-Hankow Railway, 1910–11. At present Director-General of the Lunghai Railways and Associate Director-General of the Tatung-Chengtu Railway.

TAI CH'EN-LIN.—Councillor of the Waichiaopu, April, 1912. Chinese Minister at Madrid.

TAI K'AN.—Civil Governor of Kueichow, 1913. Member of the Tsanchengyuan. Civil Governor and Acting Military Governor of Szechuan.

TAN CHEN.—Honan. Graduate of a Law College in Japan, a member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Honan representatives of the National Council. Was imprisoned for five years for promoting the Revolution in Hunan.

TAN CHUN-MOU.—Chargé d'Affaires in Peru.

TAN HSUEH-HENG.—Director River Conservancy Works of Kuangtung.

TAN PEI-SEN.—Chargé d'Affaires at Madrid.

T'AN JUI-LIN.—Kuangtung. Born 1885. Graduate of Preliminary Normal School, Kuangtung. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. After having graduated he travelled in the Straits Settlements, where he established two Primary Schools. During the Revolution he drove away the Imperialist troops from Hsinhuihsien in response to the call of the Lieutenant-General Hwang Min-tang. Was elected Speaker of the Town Council of the Hsien. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

T'AN SHOU-K'UN.—Hupeh. Born 1876. After the Revolution was appointed Secretary to the Tutuh of Kuangtung. Resigned the secretaryship, and became Sub-Editor of the *Min Lik Poa*, Shanghai. Then became Editor of the *Chung Pao* at Wuchang. Was Military Adviser of the Tutuh of Hupeh, and Speaker of the Hupeh Assembly.

T'AN YEN-K'AI.—Hunan. Obtained degree of Chinshih, and in 1904, at the early age of twenty-five, was appointed a Hanlin Compiler. Retired from official life shortly afterwards, and lived in his native district until the formation of the Hunan Provincial Assembly, of which he was elected Chairman. Was elected Chief of the Military Department of Hunan on the outbreak of the Revolution, but after the assassination of two rival Tutuhs he was elected to that office in his native province. Relieved of his post, October 13, 1913; reinstated, 1916.

TANG CHENG.—Councillor, Ministry of Education, August, 1912.

T'ANG CHI-YAO.—Acting Tutuh of Kueichow, April, 1912. Commander-in-Chief of Yunnan and Kueichow troops for the relief of Szechuan, August 26, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Yunnan, September 28, 1913. Acting Chief Civil Administrator of Yunnan, October 4, 1913. Chiangchun of Yunnan, 1915; subsequently Tuchun. Chief of the General Staff in the Canton Government, 1918.

T'ANG CHUN.—Deputy Governor, Bank of China, August 21, 1913; Governor, do., September 25, 1913.

TANG HSIANG-MING.—Hupeh. Educated at the Liang Hu College, Wuchang, and obtained degree of Chujen before leaving for France to undergo a course of naval training. After graduating from a Naval College he served on a French warship, and returned to China in the autumn of 1911. A nephew of Tang Hua-lung. Appointed Vice-Minister of the Navy on the formation of the first Republican Cabinet. Vice-Admiral, Nov. 3, 1912. Acting Tutuh of Hunan, October 24, 1913. Chiangchun of Hunan, 1914.

TANG KU-SE.—Member for Mongolia of the National Council.

TANG SHAO-YI.—Kuangtung. Educated in America. Secretary to Yuan Shih-kai while the latter was Imperial Resident in Korea. Consul-General in Korea after the Chino-Japanese war. Then employed on the staff of the Northern Railway Administration. In Shantung with Yuan Shih-kai, winter, 1900. Customs Taotai, Tientsin, February, 1902. Special Commissioner to Tibet, September, 1904. Proceeded to India as special Envoy, to negotiate the Tibet Convention, which was subsequently completed at Peking in April, 1906. Acting Junior Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs, November, 1905. Substantive Junior Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs, February, 1906. Director-General Shanghai-Nanking, and Lu-Han Railways, 1906. Comptroller-General of Revenue Council, May, 1906. Senior Vice-President of Board of Communications, November, 1906. Continued to act as Vice-President of Board of Foreign Affairs. First Governor of Fengtien on reorganization of government of Manchuria, April, 1907. Special Envoy to America to thank the Government for waiving part of the Boxer Indemnity, July, 1908. Resigned Governorship of Fengtien, July, 1909. Expectant Vice-President Board of Communications, and Acting President, August, 1910, and resigned in the spring. Appointed Minister of Communications on the dismissal of Sheng Hsuan-huai on October 26, 1911. Proceeded to Shanghai as Yuan Shih-kai's delegate, to negotiate with the revolutionary leaders in December. Resigned his position as delegate on December 27. Appointed Premier, after abdication of the Manchus on February 13. Resignation as Premier accepted on June 27, when he was appointed Superior Adviser to the President on State Affairs. A member of the Tung Meng Hui.

T'ANG TSAI-FU.—Kiangsu. Born 1877. Graduate of Kuang Fan Yen College, Shanghai; of the Tungwen College, Peking; and of the Paris University. Secretary to the Chinese Legation at Paris and The Hague, and at one time Acting Chinese Minister in France, Holland, and Russia. Was Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs in the last Dynasty. Junior Secretary, Waichiaopu, March, 1912; Councillor, Waichiaopu, April, 1912.

TANG TSAI-LI.—Deputy Chief of the General Staff, 1915.

TANG TSUNG-YU.—Secretary of Finance in Heilungkiang, 1915.

TANG YANG-TENG.—Formerly Inspector-General of the Yangtze and Director-General of the Canton-Hankow Railway.

T'AO CH'ANG-SHAN.—Chekiang. Born 1878. A Graduate of an Agricultural School in Japan. A Chief of the Department of Agriculture, appointed December, 1912. Chairman of the Society of Agriculture. Author of *Agricultural Affairs*.

TAO SI-CHENG.—Director-General of Government Mining Operations in Hunan, 1915. Acting Governor of Hunan, 1915.

TÊNG JUNG.—Szechuan. Born 1872. Studied law in Japan. A Chujen. Was member of the late National Council, and member of the Chung Yi Yuan, representing Kobdo and other places, Mongolia. Legal Adviser to the President, and the Ministry of Communications. Chinputang. Author of a volume of Chinese Poetry.

T'IEH LIANG.—Manchu. Director of Grand Court of Revision, spring, 1901. Vice-President Board of Revenue, November, 1903. Vice-President Board of War, May, 1904. Acting President Board of War, March, 1905. Junior Vice-President Board of Revenue, September, 1905. Grand Councillor Probationary, September, 1905. Member Government Council, September, 1905. President Board of Revenue, December, 1905. Grand Councillor, January, 1906. Comptroller-General Revenue Council, May, 1906. Removed from Grand Council, November, 1906. President, Army Board, November, 1906. Member Government Council, spring, 1907. Yellow Riding Jacket, December, 1908. Commissioner Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Retired owing to ill-health, March, 1910. Tartar General at Nanking, September, 1910, which post he was holding when the revolutionary army attacked the city. He escaped to Peking, where he earned notoriety as one of the bitterest opponents of abdication. Took up his residence in Japan.

TIEN CHUN-FANG.—Kansu. Chairman of the Investigations Committee of the National Council, in which he sat as a member for his native province. Was the proposer of most private Bills introduced into the Council by members. A member of the Kunghotang. Acting Chief of Department of Finance, Kansu.

TIEN CHUNG-YU.—Lieutenant-General. In the Generalissimo's Office. Appointed Joint Investigator of the Likin system, 1916. Tatung of Chahar.

TIEN PU-CH'AN.—Kiangsu. Born 1866. A Chensu of the last Dynasty. Graduate of the Law Department of the Chensu Academy. Chief of the Department of Cultivation and Cattle Raising in the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. Was sent to Shangpaishan to investigate forests and mines, to investigate industry in the Three Eastern Provinces, and to the North of Kalgan to manage the cultivation and cattle raising there. Was a Supervisor of the construction of the Imperial Tombs. Author of *The Cultivation of Cotton*, in eight volumes.

TIEN WEN-LIÉH.—Governor of Honan, 1915. Minister of Agriculture and Commerce.

TING CHENG.—Lieutenant-General. Bordered Red Banner Manchu Corps.

TING CH'IEN.—Honan. Born 1881. Graduate of a Law College in Japan. Was deputed to recruit troops in Wuhu and other places during the Revolution. A member of the Advisory Council in Nanking Government. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

TING SHIH-TO.—Member for Shantung of the National Council.

TING WAI.—General. Headquarter Staff. Formerly Provincial Commander-in-Chief, Yunnan.

TSAO CHIA-HSIANG.—Admiral.

TSAI HSUN (Prince).—Brother of the late Emperor Kuang Hsu. High Commissioner for Naval Reorganization, June, 1909. Naval Mission to Europe, October, 1909. Consulting Member of Government Council, July, 1910. Naval Mission to Japan and America, August, 1910. Minister of the Navy, 1911. Removed from office after outbreak of Revolution.

TSAI JU-CHIA.—Governor of Shantung.

TSAI T'AO (Prince).—Brother of the late Emperor Kuang Hsu. Charged with formation of a new Imperial Guard, December, 1908. Chief of the General Staff, June, 1909. Mission to Japan, America, and Europe to study military matters, March, 1910. Removed from office during the Revolution. Is understood to have been one of the most vigorous opponents of abdication.

TSAI TING-KAN.—Was one of the party of Chinese students who went to America with Dr. Yung Wing in 1873. Returned to China in 1881, after eight years' study in America. Subsequently joined the Chinese torpedo school, and entered the Chinese Navy. Was in command of a flotilla of torpedo boats at Port Arthur, and during the Chino-Japanese war took part in the engagements off Port Arthur, the Yalu, and Weihaiwei. Entered the service of Yuan Shih-kai when he was Viceroy of Chihli. In 1911 was made Chief of a Department in the Ministry of Navy, but on Yuan Shih-kai's arrival in Peking was transferred to his staff, at Yuan's special request, as Naval A.D.C. Vice-Admiral, November 20, 1912. Director-General Adjoint of Revenue Council, October 1, 1913. Master of Ceremonies in the President's Palace, Peking, 1918. Chairman of the Commission for the Revision of China's Tariff, May, 1918.

TSAI TSE.—Imperial Duke. Deputy Lieutenant-General Plain Blue Banner, March, 1901. Chief of Imperial Mission to Foreign Countries, 1905. Acting Minister of the Presence, August, 1906. Comptroller of Imperial Armoury, November, 1906. Employed on Reform Commission, 1906. Minister of the Presence, February, 1907. President, Board of Finance, May, 1907. Member of Committee of Banner Reform, December, 1908. Rank of Prince of Fourth Order, December, 1908. Commissioner of Naval Reorganization, February, 1909. Removed from office as President of the Board of Finance on November 1, 1911.

TSAI YUAN-P'EI.—Chekiang. A Hanlin scholar who has made a speciality of the study of education, spending some time in Germany with this object. After the *coup d'état* in 1898 he went to Changsha, where he took up educational work, and subsequently to Shanghai, where he joined the staff of the Nanyang College. In 1905 he was a Professor in the Language School at Peking, and it was after this that he spent five years in study at German Universities. His revolutionary activities had led to his being a suspect before he left China. On the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he returned, and was elected to the post of Minister of Education by the Nanking Provisional Government. He came to Peking as Chief of the Southern Delegation charged with the duty of congratulating Yuan Shih-kai upon his election as President. Tsai was elected Minister of Education in the first Republican Cabinet, but resigned after Tang Shao-yi gave up the Premiership. Was a member of the Tung Meng Hui. President of Peking University.

TSAN TIEN-CHEN.—Member for Heilungkiang of the National Council.

TS'AO CHÊN MAO.—Fukien. Born 1872. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. During the last Dynasty he was employed as Teacher and Director to several Schools, and in 1912 he was elected as Vice-Speaker of Fukien Provisional Assembly. Chinputang.

TSAO JUI.—Provincial Treasurer of Chihli, April, 1912.

TS'AO JU-LIN.—Acting Vice-Minister of Foreign Affairs, November 11, 1913; Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs, August 10, 1913. Appointed Minister of Communications in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917. Acting Minister of Finance, 1918; resigned October, 1918. President of the Bank of Communications.

TSAO KUN.—General. Tuchun of Chihli, 1917. Appointed Inspector-General of Szechuan, Kuangtung, Hunan, and Kiangsi, June, 1918, for operations against the South.

TSAO YU-TE.—Member for Anhui of the National Council.

TSAO YUN-SIANG.—Chekiang. Born 1880. Graduate of St. John's University, Shanghai; B.A. Yale (De Forest Gold Medalist); M.B.A. Harvard. Associate Editor of English and Chinese Standard Dictionary. Second Secretary of Chinese Legation, London, appointed July, 1914.

TS'EN CH'UN-HSUAN.—Kuangsi. Son of the late Viceroy Ts'en Yu-ying. Sub-Director of Court of Imperial Entertainments, June, 1892. Financial Commissioner, Kuangtung, September, 1898. Financial Commissioner, Kansu, December, 1898. Governor Shensi, September, 1900. Governor Shansi, March, 1901. Yellow Jacket, January, 1902. Governor Kuangtung, May, 1902. Acting Viceroy Szechuan, September, 1902–May, 1903. Acting Viceroy Liang Kuang, November, 1903. Viceroy Yun-kuei Provinces, September, 1906 (did not proceed). Viceroy Szechuan, March, 1907 (did not proceed). President of Board of Communications, May 3, 1907. Viceroy Liang Kuang, May, 1907 (did not proceed). Resigned on account of ill-health, August 12, 1907. Ordered to proceed to Szechuan in September, 1911, to suppress the railway agitation in that province, in co-operation with the Viceroy, Chao Erh-feng. Had not left Hankow when the Revolution broke out. Appointed Viceroy of Szechuan, October 14, but did not proceed. Commission for Pacification, Fukien, September 12. Appointment ceased November 12. Director-General, Hukuang Railways, February 13. Resigned, June 17, 1913. His arrest ordered for alleged complicity in the rebellion, August 21, 1913. In 1918 joined the Southern movement; appointed Administrator-Director of the Military Council at Canton and Minister of the Interior.

TSEN TSUNG-CHIEN.—Acting Consul-General in Australia, 1915.

TSENG KAN-CHEN.—Kiangsi. Born 1877. Graduate of a Law School in Japan, and studied in Pennsylvania University, U.S.A. When the Revolution broke out in Wuchang, he returned from America, and was elected member of the Provisional Assembly of Hupeh. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

TSENG YEN.—Kuangsi. Graduate of a Japanese University. Chairman of the Petitions Committee of the National Council, in which he sat as a member for his native province. A member of the Tung Meng Hui.

TSENG YU-CHENG.—Military Governor of Shanghai, 1915. Vice-Minister of Communications, October, 1918.

TSÊNG YU-LAN.—Kiangsi. Born 1880. Graduate of a University in Japan. Was a member of the late National Council, and a member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Was editor of the *Sheng Chow Jih Pao*, Shanghai, and *Ti Kuo Jih Pao*, Peking. Was Teacher at the High Law School in Peking. During the Revolution was made Chief of the Legislative Bureau of Kiangsi, and a member of the Kiangsi Assembly. Chinputang. Translated a book on the Imperial Japanese Constitution.

TSENG YU-YI.—Fengtien. A prominent member of the National Council, in which he was one of the Fengtien members. Was chosen to represent the House to interview the President on the occasion of Tang Shao-yi's departure from Peking. A member of the Tung-yi-kung-ho-tang.

TSI CHUNG-YIN.—Financial Commissioner, Yunnan.

TSIANG MOU-HSI.—Director-General of Mines in Kiangsu, 1915.

TSIANG NGAN-HSING.—A Director at the Generalissimo's Headquarters, Peking.

TSOU SHU-SHENG.—Kiangsi. Born 1881. Graduate of a University in Japan. Was the Chief of the Finance Department in Kiangsi for one year and five months. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

TSU YU-LIN.—Vice-Minister Foreign Affairs, 1915.

TSUAN TSENG.—General. Appointed Acting Chiangchun of Yunnan on outbreak of revolt, 1915.

TSUR YE-TSUNG.—Dean of Tsinghua College. Became President 1913; resigned, 1918.

TU CHIEN.—Kiangsu. A returned student from Japan, who was formerly acting Tutuh of Chefoo. A member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Kiangsu members of the National Council.

TU HSI-CHÜN.—Chihli. Born 1881. Graduate of the Military Officers' Institute in Japan. Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General, and Occupation Commissioner of Hankow. In 27th year of Kuang Hsu, was a petty officer in the new Army of Hupeh: 28th year, sent by Chang Chih-tung, the then Viceroy of Hupeh, to Japan to study: obtained first degree in a competitive examination on his return from Japan: Staff Officer of the 8th Army

Division, 11th month, 1st year of Hsuan Tung. Sub-director for the Bureau for the training of the Army, 2nd month of the 2nd year of Hsuan Tung: Commander of the Third Ying of the 30th Regiment, 11th month of the same year. At the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang he led his troops and occupied Chu Wang Tai, Snake Hill, and Feng Huang Hill, whence he attacked the various Imperialists' centres. After the Revolution he was made Chief of the 2nd Regiment, Chief of the General Staff, General of the First Division of the Northern Expedition, High Military Adviser of the Vice-President and Military Councillor of the President, and has received the 3rd Order of Merit. Non-partisan.

TU SZI-YI.—Chekiang. Born 1879. Graduate of a University in Japan A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang.

TUAN CHI-JUI—Anhui. A graduate of the Peiyang Military School. Yuan Shih-kai's chief military adviser while Viceroy of Chihli. Brigade-General in Fukien in 1906, Deputy Lieutenant-General of the Chinese Bordered Yellow Banner, October, 1907; and General Commanding the Sixth Division of the Luchun, December, 1909. Commander-in-Chief, Kiangpeh, December, 1910. He was in a large measure responsible for the reorganization upon modern lines of the Northern Army, and after Yuan Shih-kai accepted the Premiership in November, 1911, he succeeded him as Viceroy of the Hukuang Provinces. On the recall of Baron Feng Kuo-chang, General Tuan took command of the First Army. He was one of the most prominent of the military commanders who signed the memorial to the Throne at the end of January, urging the Emperor to abdicate. On the formation of the first Republican Cabinet he was elected Minister of War. Given rank of General (Shang Chiang), September 7, 1912; of Field-Marshal, 1915. Chief of the Headquarter's Staff, 1915. Acting Premier, May 1, 1913, to July 19, 1913. Acting Tutuh of Hupeh (during Vice-President's absence in Peking), December 10, 1913. Chiangchun and Acting Governor of Fengtien. Minister of War, 1914. Granted sick leave, June 1, 1915. In May, 1916, Tuan Chi-jui was appointed Premier and charged with the formation of a responsible Cabinet. Dismissed by Li Yuan-hung, May, 1917; but resumed office in July after the failure of Chang Hsun's monarchical *coup d'état*. Resigned, October, 1918.

TUAN SHIH-YUAN.—Honan. Born 1883. Graduate of a Japanese University, specializing in political and financial matters. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan and a member of the Constitution Drafting Committee. A member of the Kuomintang. Translated several works, such as *Political Science*, *Financial Problems*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

TUAN YU-CHING.—Yunnan. Ex-Vice-Chairman of the Yunnan Provincial Assembly. Member for that province of the National Council, and also a member of the Tung Meng Hui.

TUNG HUNG-WEI.—Educated in Japan, where he studied law and politics. Interpreter to the Chinese Legation at The Hague. A member of the Bureau of Technical Terms. Vice-Minister of Education (in charge May 1, 1913).

T'UNG HANG-SHIH.—Chekiang. Born 1876. Graduate of the Law School in Chekiang. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Was Teacher and Founder of several Schools. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

TUNG YU-CHUN.—Industrial Taotai of Chihli, July, 1912.

TYAU TSO-CH'IEN (better known as Dr. Philip K. C. Tyau). Kuangtung. Born 1880. Educated at St. John's University, Shanghai; Cambridge University, M.A., LL.B.; Barrister-at-Law, Middle Temple. A Chin-shih and Hanlin Compiler of the late Dynasty. Director-General of the Chinese Student-Mission to Europe, 1909. Joined Wai-wu Pu, 1910. A Secretary in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on the establishment of the Republic, 1912. Secretary in the President's Office, May, 1912. First Secretary of the Chinese Legation, London, August, 1912. Appointed to the Chinese Legation, London, 1914, as an extra First Secretary, in temporary charge of the Chinese Consulate-General in London.

WAI TSE-CHIN.—Consul-General in Australia.

WANG CHAO-MING.—Cantonese. Graduate of a Tokio Law School. Ardent revolutionist. Notorious for the attempt to assassinate the Prince Regent by means of a bomb placed under a bridge over which the Regent daily passed. Arrested and imprisoned for life, but released after two years, in the autumn of 1911, after the outbreak of the Revolution. Went to Shanghai and rendered great service to the revolutionary party. Held important posts in the Nanking Revolutionary Government. Commissioned to go to Southern Islands to encourage allegiance of Chinese settlers to the Republic. Minister of Finance and Director-General of the Salt Administration, 1918.

WANG CHEN-YAO.—Member for Chihli of the National Council.

WANG CHENG-TING (better known as C. T. Wang).—Chekiang. Studied in the Peiyang University from 1895 to 1900. Was a teacher in the Anglo-Chinese College in Tientsin, and at Changsha High School, of which he was head master. Studied in Japan for four years, where he was Secretary of the Y.M.C.A. at Tokio. Then went to America, where he studied law for three years. Was General Li Yuan-hung's Chief of Diplomatic Affairs at Wuchang, and Vice-Minister of Commerce and Industry in the first Republican Cabinet. Acting Minister of that Ministry until he resigned on the retirement of Tang Shao-yi. Vice-President of the Senate until unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. After the death of Yuan Shih-kai again became Vice-President of the Senate. Deputy Inspector-General of the Yangtze. Joined the southern movement, 1918, in opposition to the military Government in Peking.

WANG CHIA-HSIANG.—Chekiang. Born 1871. A returned student from Japan. Was two years a Councillor to the Police Authority of Chekiang; three years Professor of the Police College at Chekiang; one year as Chief of Police Office, Shaoyin; two years as Teacher to a Law College; one year Chief of the Police Bureau of Kirin Province; two years member of the Chekiang Chu Yi Chu; one year member of the late National Council; and member and Speaker of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Director-General of the Mines in Chihli, 1915. President of the Senate, 1916; resigned June, 1917.

WANG CHIA-PING.—Shensi. Born 1882. Graduate of the High School in Shensi. Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. Vice-Speaker of the Shensi Assembly. Was a Teacher of a Middle School and was a member of the Provisional Assembly of Shensi. Kuomintang.

WANG CHIH-CHING.—Member for Heilungkiang of the National Council.

WANG CHIH-HSIN. Chief of Police, Peking Inner City, April, 1912. Acting Vice-Minister of Interior, July 18, 1913. Prefect of Shuntienfu (Peking), October 16, 1913. Executed for bribery, October, 1914.

WANG CH'ING-MU.—Kiangsu. Secretary of Board of Commerce. September, 1903. Judicial Commissioner, Chihli, August, 1906. Retired January, 1907. Auditor-General, Chekiang, April, 1909. Commissioner of Finance, Kiangsu, April, 1912.

WANG CHING-FANG.—Honan. Born 1880. A returned student from Japan. Sub-editor of the *Min Lik Pao*, Shanghai, February, 1912. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Non-partisan. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

WANG CHING-FANG.—Hupeh. Born 1876. Graduate of Liang-Hu College and a High Commercial School at Tokio. Director of Audit Bureau, and Chairman to the Committee for the Customs Duties, 1913. In the late Dynasty he was Director of the Bureau for the reform of the currency, and the Printing Bureau of Tuchipu, and Assistant Director of the Ta-ching Bank. After the Revolution was the Director of the Preparatory Department of the Ministry of Finance for organizing the affairs of the Ministry, and Director of the Bureau for Central Taxation, establishing branches in the Provinces.

WANG CH'UNG-HUI.—Kuangtung. Born in 1882. Studied at the Peiyang University from 1895 to 1900. Studied law in America (D.C.L. Yale), Germany and England. While in America he translated the German Civil Code into English, and acted as co-editor of the *Journal of the American Bar Association*. Called to the English Bar at the Inner Temple. Appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs under the Nanking Provisional Government, and elected Minister of Justice in the first Republican Cabinet. He was a member of the Tung Meng Hui, and resigned his post after the resignation of Tang Shao-yi. On his resignation from the Cabinet he was appointed

Chief Adviser to the Waichiaopu. President of the Law Compilation Bureau, 1918.

WANG FU-WEI.—Hupeh. Born 1887. Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Chief Secretary of the Ministry of Justice in Nanking Government. Was Chairman of the Central Judicial Conference. Was editor of the *Chiao Yu Hsin Pao*, and correspondent of the *Hsing Yi Chieh*. Councillor of the Ministry of Justice, 1913. Non-partisan. Author of *The Finance of China*, *The Currency of China*, *The Mystery of the Learnings of Hsuntze*, *Industrial Education*.

WANG HSIANG.—Szechuan. Born 1875. Studied three years in Japan. Was editor of the *Hsin Chung Pao*, at Chengtu. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kunghotang.

WANG HSIN-YUN.—Member for Kansu of the National Council.

WANG HU.—Chihli. Kirin Taotai, August, 1910. Acting Chief Civil Administrator, Hunan, October 7th, 1913.

WANG HUAI-SHÊN.—Anhui. Graduate of a Law College in Japan. Chief of the Department of Civil Affairs of the Ministry of Justice. During the Revolution he was arrested by the Martial Court in Peking, but was soon released and returned to Nanking and served in the 1st Army Division there. Kuomintang.

WANG HUNG-SHÊN.—Kirin. Born 1882. A Graduate of the Normal School in Kirin. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

WANG I-TANG.—Governor of Kirin, 1915. Speaker of the House of Representatives, 1918.

WANG JU-HSIEN.—Principal of the Academy for Military Officers, 1915.

WANG JUNG-PAO.—Kiangsu. Graduate of a Japanese University. Member of the former Tzechengyuan. Formerly Councillor of the Board of Constabulary. One of the Kiangsu members of the National Council, and a member of the Kunghotang.

WANG KÊNG.—Anhui. Born 1877. A returned student from Japan and Europe, Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General of the Army. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Was in the Three Eastern Provinces training the new army, and was a Brigadier. Went to Russia with Tai Hung-chi, and travelled in Europe and America. Was a Military Commissioner and Lieutenant-General of Miyun. Established a Private University. Member of the Committee of Chinputang. Address: Tung Tieh Chian Hutung, Peking.

WANG KUANG-CHI.—Attaché to the Chinese Legation at St. Petersburg, and formerly private secretary to Lu Cheng-hsiang, while he represented China in Holland and St. Petersburg. Was Secretary to the Cabinet from March 7 to October 6, when he resigned. Minister to Belgium, December 29, 1912. Minister Plenipotentiary in Italy, 1915.

WANG KUEI-FANG.—Lieut.-General of the Plain Blue Banner Mongol Corps, 1915.

WANG KUO-TO.—Director of the Salt Transport Office in Hunan, 1915.

WANG P'EI-CHU.—Commissioner of Finance, Shantung, May, 1912.

WANG SHAN-CHUAN.—Taoyin of Foochow, 1915.

WANG SHAO-AO.—Kiangsu. Born 1886. Graduate of a University in Japan. Acting Commissioner of Foreign Affairs, Soochow, June, 1912. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan and member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. After the Revolution assisted Tsang Ping-ling in organizing Min-kuo Lien-ho Hui: which was reorganized and became the Tung-yi-tang, the policy and regulations of which were drawn up by him with the help of four others.

WANG SHIH-CHENG.—General. Senior Director of the Generalissimo's Office. Chief of General Staff, 1916. Premier, December, 1917; resigned, February 20, 1918.

WANG SHIH-KUNG.—Chihli. Born 1882. Graduate of Chihli High School and Normal School. Was a Teacher for three years. Member of Provisional Provincial Assembly, 1912. A member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

WANG SHIH-T'UNG.—Acting Vice-Minister of Justice, July–August, 1912.

WANG SHOU-CH'ANG.—Fukien. Born 1863. Studied in the Arsenal School, Foochow, and also a Graduate of a Law College in France. Appointed Chief of the Department of Foreign Affairs, Fukien, December, 1912, and Delegate for Foreign Affairs June, 1913. Was several years in the Railway service, and in the first year of Hsuan Tung was appointed Director of the Arsenal of Han-Yang. Non-partisan.

WANG SHOU-CHÊN.—Anhui. Born 1871. Has been fifteen years in the police and judiciary services. Probationary Judge of High Court, Heilungkiang, June, 1911; Vice-Minister of Justice, September, 1912.

WANG SHU.—Szechuan. Born 1876. Graduate of the Law College in Peking. Chujen. Was Judge of the High Court in Peking. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Chinputang. Author of *The Essence of the Constitution and Criminal Code*, and four volumes of other works.

WANG SHUANG-CH'I.—Chihli. Born 1880. Graduate of a University in Japan. Chujen. A member of the Chun Yi Yuan. Was appointed to the Bureau for the Preparation of Chihli Chu Yi Chu, and then Chairman of the Department for the investigation of Self-Government. Chinputang. Author of *The Principles of Self-Government*, etc.

WANG SHU-SHENG.—Member for Kirin of the National Council.

Wang Tah.—Governor of Peking, 1915.

Wang T'ung-ling.—Chihli. Born 1878. Studied one year in Chihli High School; one in the Government University; Graduate of the High School and the Government University at Tokio. Was appointed Councillor of the Ministry of Education on the 24th of the 9th month of the 1st year of the Chinese Republic. Acted as Secretary of the Ministry, and was a Delegate to attend business in the Cabinet. Member of the Boards of various Schools. Appointed by the Ministry to be Delegate for the Bureau for the Panama Exhibition.

Wang Ta-hsieh.—Chekiang. Secretary, Waiwupu, September, 1903. Minister to Great Britain, September, 1905. Vice-President Waiwupu, November, 1906. Special Commissioner to study the British Constitution, 1908. Vice-President Ministry of Communications, August, 1908. Chinese Minister to Japan, May, 1910. Minister of Education, September 11, 1913. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs in Tuan Chi-jui's Cabinet, July, 1917.

Wang Tsang-yuan.—Chiangchun of Hupeh, 1915.

Wang Tsu-t'ing.—Finance Commissioner, Honan, July, 1912. Governor of Kuangsi, 1915; created Marquis of Second Order, December, 1915.

Wang Wen-chin.—Member for Chekiang of the National Council.

Wang Wen-wei.—Chekiang. Born 1880. Educated in a Missionary School at Shanghai, and a Graduate of the College of Languages, Shanghai. Engaged as a clerk in the American Postal Agency at Shanghai for eleven years. When the Revolution broke out was made Sectional Chief of the Postal Department at Hangchow. When the Provisional Government was at Nanking he was a Sectional Chief in the Postal Department of the Ministry of Communications. Appointed Delegate of Communications to Peking by Chekiang Province, and became Chief of the Postal Department of the Ministry of Communications, on the 12th of May, 1912. Received the 4th Class of Chia-ho from the President. Kuomintang.

Wang Ying-chuan.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council o State), 1915.

Wang Yu-ling.—Councillor of Law Department of Cabinet, July, 1912. Vice-Minister of Justice in Lu Cheng-hsiang's Ministry, August, 1912. Resigned in September, 1912.

Wang Yung-ping.—Shansi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Law School in Japan. Was Speaker of the Provisional Assembly of Shansi, and member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. After returning from Japan he opened a newspaper office in Shansi, and having incurred suspicion for revolutionary tendencies, he fled to avoid being arrested. During the Revolution he returned to Shansi, where he organized a Revolution army in Hotung, thus connecting the revolutionary forces of Shansi and Shensi. He was elected Tutuh by the people, but he refused the post. After the Declaration of the Republic he went to Taiyuanfu, in the capacity of Chief Civil Administrator, and organized the Provisional Assembly of Shansi and was elected Speaker of the Assembly. Then he invited Tutuh Yen to return to Shansi to take up his office as Tutuh. Was a member of the Kuomintang, but being dissatisfied with the actions of the tang, he began to organize the Chengyuhui. Author of *The Constitutional History of China*, *Changes in Chinese Literature*, etc.

WEI CHIA-HUA.—Kiangsu. Held Taotaiships in Yunnan in 1910–11. Vacated office in August, 1911. Civil Commissioner, Kiangsu, April, 1912.

WEI CHING-HSIUNG.—Director of the Branch Conservancy Office in Hunan, 1915.

WEI CH'EN-TSU.—Chief Secretary of the Cabinet, May, 1912. Retired July, 1912. Minister to Holland, November 24, 1912.

WEI HAN.—Chief Superintendent of Shipbuilding, 1915.

WEN SHOU-CH'UAN.—Military Commissioner of Shansi, July, 1912.

WEN TSUNG-YAO.—Kuangtung. Educated in America. Secretary to Canton Viceroy, 1905–8. Assistant Resident in Tibet, June, 1908. Played a very conspicuous part in the Revolution, in particular being mainly responsible for the foreign propaganda of the revolutionaries. In co-operation with Wu Ting-fang, and acting in complete understanding with the Wuchang leaders, he directed the issue of the Republican manifestoes and other pronouncements, and endeavoured by every possible device to prevent foreign loans to the Imperial Government. On the establishment of the Republic he became Commissioner of Trade and Foreign Affairs in Shanghai, a post which he resigned in April. He was subsequently offered the position of Chinese Resident in Tibet, but declined to accept it.

WEN TU-CHOU.—Hunan. Resides in Sinkiang. A Hsiutsai of the late Dynasty. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. A Magistrate of Changchihsien, Sinkiang (Kuang Hsu 34th year), and there at his own expense he established four primary Schools. A Magistrate of Shuilaihsien, Hsuan Tung first year, and within the two years when he was in office he established eleven primary Schools, which contained 932 pupils. He, with the assistance of the natives there, opened a canal, thirty li, which waters more than 9000 mou of fields. Kuomintang. Author of *Minerals and Scenery in Sinkiang*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

"WHITE WOLF."—Chinese name, Peh Lang. Honan. Family prominent in East Honan. Graduated from a Military Academy; was an officer under Wu Lu-cheng. Sent to recruit in Honan, while the latter marched on Peking (1913). When Wu Lu-cheng was assassinated, Peh Lang swore vengeance. When one of his own followers left him to join the Government forces, Peh Lang hesitated to commit himself, but sent emissaries to the Tutuh of Honan offering his services. These men were executed, and Peh Lang at once started a revolt of his own accord (August, 1913). He is believed not to have been in communication with the rebellion in the South, though he had the support of Sun Yat-sen. Although his band was not much more than a thousand strong, it roamed at will across a large part of China, burning and pillaging. It crossed in Anhui in January, 1914, then started westwards, reached the western border of China Proper, and then returned to its actual starting point. No less than 100,000 troops were mobilised to cope with the band, but few encounters took place. Either shortly before or shortly after the death of "White Wolf," which is said to have occurred on August 5, 1914, near Lashan, Honan, his band dissolved, many of its members enlisting in small groups in the regular army.

WONG KAI-WÊN.—Chief of Bureau of Rites.

WU CHAO-CHU.—Kuangtung. Born 1886. A Graduate of Atlantic City High School, U.S.A.; University of London; Lincoln's Inn, London; Barrister-at-Law; LL.B.; Commissioner for Foreign Affairs for Hupeh, 1912; Chairman, Treaty Commission of Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 1912; Representative of Kuangtung, 1913; Member of Constitution-Drafting Committee, 1913; Awarded Studentship at Bar Examinations, 1911; Awarded Moiety of Scholarship at LL.B. Examinations by University of London, 1911. Kuomintang. An originator of the Minhsientang. Author of pamphlets entitled an *Appeal for Recognition*, and on *China's Position in Tibet*. Councillor of the State Department and Ministry for Foreign Affairs, 1915. Joint Examiner, with King Pang-ping, and American and Japanese advisers, of students graduated abroad.

WU CHAO-LIN.—Councillor, Luchunpu, April, 1912.

WU CHEN-NAN.—Councillor, Ministry of Navy, September, 1912.

WU CH'ENG.—Kiangsu. Born 1877. A Graduate of a Medical School at Tokio. Chief of the Sanitary Department of the Ministry of the Interior, and Chairman of the Chinese Medical Society. Has been Teacher to various Government Schools. Non-partisan. Author of *The History of Opium in China*, etc.

WU CHÊN-NAN.—Kiangsu. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Naval School in Nanking, and a Naval School in England. Captain in the Navy. Was Teacher of the Navigation Department of the Naval School in Nanking. Chief of the Naval Department in Nanking, and when the Nanking Government was organized he became a Councillor of the Ministry of the Navy. Non-partisan.

WU CHIN-HSIN.—Censor.

WU CHING-LIEN.—Fengtien. Studied in Japan. Was Chairman of the Fengtien Provincial Assembly. Represented his province in the National Council, of which he was Chairman. A member of the Tung-yi-kung-ho-tang. Member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Elected Speaker of the House of Representatives, June, 1917, prior to Li Yuan-Sung's dissolution of Parliament. President of the Canton Parliament, 1918.

WU CHUN.—Member for Kansu of the National Council.

WU CHUNG-HSIEN.—Chargé d'Affaires in Mexico.

WU CHUNG-YING.—Military Commissioner of Anhui, May, 1912.

WU ERH-CH'ANG.—Councillor in the Waichiaopu, April, 1912.

WU FAN.—Director of the Bank of Hunan, 1915.

WU FANG.—Financial Secretary of Chêkiang, 1915.

WU LIEN-TEH.—Kuangtung. Born 1880. Cambridge, England, B.A., M.B., B.C., M.D., France, Germany. Physician and Surgeon. Director and Chief Medical Officer, North Manchuria Plague Prevention Service. Twice Delegate to International Opium Conference, Hague. Director and Chief Medical Officer of the Plague Prevention Service. Holder of many honours in Europe. Hon. LL.D., Hong-Kong. Fellow and member of Learned Societies in Europe. Author of books on Plague and other Medical subjects. President of the National Medical Association.

WU NAI-SHÊN.—Chekiang. Born 1881. A Chujen of late Ching Dynasty. Graduate of Polytechnical Institute of Shanghai ; B.S. of College of Commerce, University of California, U.S.A. ; and M.A. of University of Wisconsin, U.S.A. Hanlin Compiler, 2nd and 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Professor of the Commercial Course of the Government University, Peking, 1st year of Chinese Republic. Chief of the Currency Department of the Ministry of Finance, 1st year of Chinese Republic. Acting Vice-Director of the Bank of China, 2nd year of the Chinese Republic. Went to London to investigate the system of currency, 3rd year of Hsuan Tung. Belonged to the Chinputang. He is the author of *Finance*, *Book-Keeping*, and *The Problem of the Reform of Chinese Currency*. Address : Chia Lian Tze Hutung, Peking.

WU PAO-KUEI.—Brigade General of the Liang-chow military circuit in Kansu, 1915.

WU PING-CH'EN.—Szechuan. Born 1879. Graduate of the special Law College for the gentry of Szechuan. Member of Ts'an Yi Yuan and a lawyer in Peking. Was a Secretary to high Military and Civil officials in the late Dynasty. When trouble arose in connection with railway affairs in the 3rd year of Hsuan Tung, with the assistance of the gentry he started the Society for the Protection of Railways, which appointed him Delegate to proceed to Hunan and Hupeh to rouse up the people there in resistance against the Government. Took a prominent part in the Revolution, and was Chief of the Miscellaneous Department in the War Office of Szechuan. Chief Investigator of the Bureau of the Southern Szechuan Pacificator. Magistrate of Chianwei Hsien. Sectional Chief of

Criminal Procedure Department of the Department of Justice and other official posts. Member of the Senate. Kunghotang. Address: Chung-shu Erh Tiao Hutung, outside the Hsuan Wu Men, Peking.

Wu Ping-hsiang.—Chief of the Metropolitan Constabulary, 1915.

Wu Shou-chien.—Chargé d'Affaires and Consul-General in Cuba.

Wu Ting-fang.—Kuangtung. Born 1842. A Graduate of St. Paul's College, Hongkong; and Lincoln's Inn, London; Barrister-at-Law; LL.D. (hon. can.); Minister to the U.S., Spain and Peru, 1896; Vice-President Board of Commerce, 1903; Commissioner for Revision of Treaties, 1903; Vice-President, Board of Foreign Affairs, 1903; of Board of Punishments, 1906; Commissioner for Revision of Laws, 1905; Judge, International Court of Arbitration at The Hague, 1905; Minister to U.S.A., Spain, Peru, and Cuba, 1907; Chief Revolutionary Delegate at Shanghai Peace Conference, 1911; Minister of Foreign Affairs and Justice under Nanking Government. First Chinese Barrister; Acted as Magistrate at Hongkong; revised treaties; revised and codified laws (e.g. Company Law); directed revolutionary propaganda; negotiated peace between North and South and terms of the Manchu abdication. Appointed Minister for Foreign Affairs after the death of Yuan Shih-kai. Subsequently he associated himself with the South in opposing the military domination of the Peking Government and became Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Canton Provisional Government, 1918.

Wu Tsung-lien.—Acting Senior Secretary, Waiwupu, September, 1908. Acting Junior Councillor, January, 1909. Minister to Italy, August, 1909.

Wu Wen-ping.—Chief of the Constabulary Court, 1915.

Yan Shao-chung.—Honan. Born 1881. A Graduate of the Normal School in Honan and of the Law College in Peking. Speaker of Honan Assembly. Was Teacher to various Normal and Law Colleges. Chinputang.

Yang Ch'ing.—Yunnan. Born 1845. A Chujen of the late Dynasty. Was sent by the Viceroy of his Province to investigate Educational Affairs in Japan, where he remained and studied for one year in a Normal School. Most of his time was employed in Educational Affairs. Member of the Ts'an Yi Yuan. When the election of Speaker took place he was elected as Provisional Speaker of the House, being the oldest member of that House. Kuomintang. Author of the *Records of Yunnan*, etc. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913. Commissioner of Trade and Foreign Affairs in the South. Councillor in the office of the Generalissimo of the Yangtze.

Yang Mien-chih.—Hunan. Born 1879. Graduate of the Normal School at Hunan and Graduate of a Japanese University. Councillor of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry, appointed August, 1912. Kuomintang. Author of *Philosophy*, *Poems* (six volumes), *The Blind* (five volumes), and *Talks*.

Yang Shen-teh.—General Tuchun of Chekiang.

Yang Ta.—Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State).

Yang Ting-tung.—Member for Kiangsu of the National Council.

Yang Tse.—Member for Kirin of the National Council.

Yang Tseng-hsin.—Yunnan. Aksu Taotai, Sinkiang, September, 1908. Acting Commissioner of Finance, Sinkiang, April, 1912. Tutuh of Sinkiang, May, 1912, of which Province he was also Acting Chief Civil Administrator.

Yang Yi-teh.—Chihli. Born 1875. Educated in private school. A Major-General of the Army. Chief of the Police Bureau at Tientsin, Chief of the Military Office in connection with the Peiyang troops, at Tientsin. Non-partisan.

Yao Cheng.—President of the Court of Revision, 1918.

Yao Hua.—Member for Shantung of the National Council.

Yao Shih-kuang.—Senior Councillor, Board of War, July, 1907. Acting Junior Vice-President of the Board, March, 1909. Expectant Vice-President of a Board, December, 1910. Advisory Minister to the Privy Council, August, 1911. Director of Peiyang University. Vice-President of Ministry of Interior in 1910. Vice-Chief (and for some time Acting Chief) of Bureau for Mongolia and Tibet, July, 1912.

Yao Yueh.—Salt Commissioner for the two Kuang provinces, 1915.

Yeh Kung-ch'o.—Kuangtung. Born 1880. Studied in Government University, Peking. Was Chief of the Railway Department in the Ministry of Communications, and Vice-Minister of the same Ministry. After being a Teacher in various Schools in Hupeh, he joined the Ministry of Communications, and was one of the officials who planned to get back the control of the King-Han Railway from foreigners. He was appointed a Councillor to conduct the negotiations between the North and the South, and a Delegate to prepare for the Organization of the Provisional Government. Was a Member of the Finance Committee; Vice-Chairman of the Railway Association; Chairman of the Committee to decide the technical terms used by the railways; and the Chairman of the Society for the Unification of the System of Book-keeping among Railway Companies. Vice-Minister of Communications, July 3, 1913. Dismissed, 1915. Vice-Minister of Finance, 1917. Reappointed Vice-Minister of Communications. Resigned, October, 1918.

Yen Hsi-shan.—Shansi. Born 1882. A Graduate of a Military Staff School in Japan. Lieutenant-General with the brevet rank of General of the Army, and Tutuh of Shansi. In Japan he joined the Tung Men Hui, and after returning from that country he was appointed Director of the Military School and Chief of the 86th Regiment. When the Revolution broke out, he took up the revolutionary cause and was elected Tutuh of Shansi. He led an army and occupied Koupei and district. Was the first to propose that the troops should be disbanded in order to curtail expenses, and he himself disbanded more than 30,000 troops in his Province. When the rebellion in the South broke out he was a strong supporter of the Central Government. Non-partisan. Author of *The Discipline of the Revolutionary Army.*

YEN P'AN-CH'UN.—Fengtien. Born 1862. A Graduate of Yanchenhu School in Fengtien. Hsiuchai. A Member of the Chung Yi Yuani. Was an investigator of the various societies; a member of the Fengtien Chu Yi Chu and a Vice-Speaker of the Provisional Fengtien Assembly. Chinputang.

YEN HSI-SHAN.—Shansi. After graduating from the Shansi Military College he proceeded to Japan to complete his military studies in the Officers' Training School. On his return to China he was appointed to the command of the 80th Brigade. Elected Tutuh of Shansi on the outbreak of the Revolution.

YEN HUI-CHING (better known as Dr. W. W. Yen).—B.A. of University of Columbia, U.S.A. Member of the Phi Beta Kappa Society. A Chin-Shih and Hanlin of the late Dynasty. Editor in Chief of English and Chinese Standard Dictionary. Third Secretary of Chinese Legation, Washington, 1908–10. Junior Secretary of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, August, 1911. Appointed Vice-Minister for Foreign Affairs on the establishment of the Republic, April, 1912. Minister to Germany. Plenipotentiary for the Opium Conference at The Hague, May 26, 1913. Minister to Denmark, 1918.

YEN TE-CH'ING.—Councillor, Ministry of Communications, May, 1912.

YEN TUN-YUAN.—Vice-Minister of the Interior, October 28, 1912. Resigned, July 8, 1912.

YI TSUNG-KU'EL.—Hunan. Born 1875. Studied in Japan. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, representing Mongolia, and a Member of the Constitution-Drafting Committee. One of the representatives sent by the provinces to request the opening of a Parliament. Was a member of the late Chu Cheng Yuan, and was prominent in the impeachment of Prince Ching. Was connected with the Revolution started by Tang Chai-tsang. On the failure of Kang Yu-wei's reform scheme he retired into seclusion and wrote several volumes on the subject of Reforms, until the time when schools were started everywhere, when he took up teaching. While in Japan he edited a revolutionary periodical. Kuomintang. Author of *Huang Hai Lou Essays and Poetry.* Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

YIH ERH-WEI.—President of the High Court of Justice in Szechuan, 1915.

YIN CHANG.—Manchu. Attached to Prince Ch'un's mission to Germany in 1901. Minister to Germany, August, 1901. Appointment renewed, December, 1904. Director of Noble's College, Peking, December, 1905. Provincial Commander-in-Chief, Kiangpei, September, 1906. Vice-President, Army Board, November, 1906. Minister to Germany for second time, September, 1908. Inspector-General of Autumn Manœuvres in Anhui, November, 1908. Proceeded to Germany, spring, 1909. Acting President, Board of War, March, 1910. Inspector-General of Divisions in vicinity of Peking, August, 1910. Minister of War in Prince Ching's Cabinet, December, 1910. Rank of General, March, 1911. Appointed Commander-in-Chief of the Imperial Forces, and sent to the front, on the outbreak of the Revolution at Wuchang. Recalled and appointed Chief of the General Staff, in place of Prince Tsai Tao, in November, 1911, from which post he subsequently resigned. Chief Military Secretary to the President. Member of the Tsanchengyuan (Council of State). Director of the Generalissimo's Office, Peking.

YIN CHANG-HENG.—Szechuan. Born 1884. Graduate of the Officers' Training School in Japan. Lieutenant-General of the Army with the brevet rank of a full General. Second Order of Merit. Decoration of Wen-hu, second class. Was Tutuh of Szechuan, and Occupation Commissioner of Szechuan Frontier. Pacification Commissioner of Szechuan Frontier, and Acting Tutuh, September, 1912. Suppressed disturbances in Szechuan. Defeated Tibetan troops and recovered the frontier of Szechuan. Resigned his membership from political parties. Author of *General Principles for Military Officers*, *Military Morality*, etc.

YIN JU-CHI.—Member for Chekiang of the National Council.

YING TE-HUNG.—Vice-Minister of Finance, June, 1912. Chief Civil Administrator, Kiangsu, November 19, 1912; resigned, September 6, 1913. General Director of Military Affairs of Kiangsu, July 25, 1913.

YÜ HUNG-CH'I.—Shantung. Born 1876. Graduate of the High Normal School of the Government University at Peking, and a Chujen. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

YU LANG.—Prince. A noble of the Imperial House. Vice-President, Board of Police, October, 1905. Assistant Comptroller Hatamen Octroi, September, 1906. Vice-President, Board of Interior, November, 1906. Prince of the Third Order, February, 1908. Charged with others with the formation of the new Imperial Body Guard, December, 1908. Commander of Peking Gendarmerie, January, 1909. Head of the General Staff, June, 1909. Grand Councillor, August, 1910. Chief of General Staff (with Prince Tsai Tao) in Prince Ching's Cabinet, an office from which he was removed on November 1, 1911.

YÜ PAO-SHAN.—Vice-Minister of the Interior. Organizer and Controller of the National Plague Prevention Service.

YU TAO-HSUAN.—Anhui. Graduate of a Japanese Law College. A member of the Tung Meng Hui, and one of the Anhui members of the National Council.

YU WEN-TING.—Chief of the Bureau of Printing and Engraving, 1913.

YUAN CHIA-P'U.—Financial Commissioner of Yunnan, May, 1912.

YUAN CHUNG-SHU.—Councillor, Constitutional Department of Cabinet. June, 1911. Vice-Minister of Communications, February, 1912, Retired on formation of first Republican Ministry. Chief Private Secretary to President Yuan.

YÜAN HSI-T'AO.—Kiangsu. Born 1865. A Graduate of the Shanghai Lungmen College, and was appointed to proceed to Japan to investigate educational affairs. Chujen of the late Dynasty. Was two years a member of the Educational Committee of his native town; three years a member of the Shanghai City Municipal Council; two years a member of the Kiangsu Educational Society; and three years a Sectional Chief of the Chihli Educational Society. In the fifth month of the first year of the Republic was appointed Chief of the Department of General Education. Has for years devoted himself to educational affairs. Non-partisan. Vice-Minister of Education, 1915.

YUAN JUNG-SOU.—Chekiang. Born 1881. Graduate of the Political Science Department of the University at Tokio. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan, and editor of the *Kuominkungpao.* Was Professor of Political Science in the Frontier College. Non-partisan. Author of many *Essays on Politics* published in various papers.

YUAN K'O-TING.—Honan. Eldest son of President Yuan Shih-kai. Expectant Taotai, employed upon special service in Manchuria, 1906. Junior Secretary of Board of Commerce, April, 1907. Sustained a serious accident while in Honan, in the spring of 1911, as the result of a fall from a horse. Went to Germany in 1913 for medical treatment.

YÜAN PING-HUANG.—Hunan. Born 1882. Graduate of the Police College of Sinkiang. A member of the Chung Yi Yuan for Sinkiang. Kuomintang. Unseated by Presidential Order of November 4, 1913.

YUAN TA-HUA.—Anhui. Judicial Commissioner, Shantung, May, 1906. Financial Commissioner, Honan, December, 1906. Acting Governor, August, 1907. Acting Governor, Shantung, March, 1908. Mourning, April, 1908. Governor of Sinkiang, November, 1910. Resigned, April, 1912, and ordered to take command of troops in Sinkiang and assist the Tutuh to restore order. Appointed to the Council of Regency on the abortive restoration of the Manchu Dynasty, July, 1917.

YUNG KOW-HSIN.—Civil Governor of Yunnan, 1915.

CHAPTER XXIV

CHINA IN 1915

JAPAN'S ORIGINAL DEMANDS

PRESENTED JANUARY 18, 1915

THE Japanese Government and the Chinese Government being desirous of maintaining the general peace in Eastern Asia and further strengthening the friendly relations and good neighbourhood existing between the two nations agree to the following articles :—

I

ARTICLE 1.—The Chinese Government engages to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions, which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

ARTICLE 2.—The Chinese Government engages that within the Province of Shantung and along its coast, no territory or island will be ceded or leased to a third Power under any pretext.

ARTICLE 3.—The Chinese Government consents to Japan's building a railway from Chefoo or Lungkow to join the Kiaochou-Tsinanfu Railway.

ARTICLE 4.—The Chinese Government engages, in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by herself as soon as possible certain important cities and towns in the Province of Shantung as Commercial Ports. What places shall be opened are to be jointly decided upon in a separate agreement.

II

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, since the Chinese Government has always acknowledged the special position enjoyed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, agree to the following articles :—

ARTICLE 1.—The two Contracting Parties mutually agree that the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the term of lease of the South Manchuria Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway shall be extended to cover a period of 99 years.

ARTICLE 2.—Japanese subjects in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia shall have the right to lease or own land required either for erecting suitable buildings for trade and manufacture or for farming.

ARTICLE 3.—Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and to engage in business and in manufacture of any kind whatsoever.

Article 4.—The Chinese Government agrees to grant to Japanese subjects the right of opening mines in South Manchuria and Eastern Mongolia. As regards what mines are to be opened, they shall be decided upon jointly.

Article 5.—The Chinese Government agrees that in respect of the (two) cases mentioned herein below the Japanese Government's consent shall be first obtained before action is taken :—

(*a*) Whenever permission is granted to the subject of a third Power to build a railway or to make a loan with a third Power for the purpose of building a railway in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.

(*b*) Whenever a loan is to be made with a third Power pledging the local taxes of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia as security.

Article 6.—The Chinese Government agrees that if the Chinese Government employs political, financial or military advisers or instructors in South Manchuria or Eastern Mongolia, the Japanese Government shall first be consulted.

Article 7.—The Chinese Government agrees that the control and management of the Kirin-Changchun Railway shall be handed over to the Japanese Government for a term of 99 years dating from the signing of this Agreement.

III

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, seeing that Japanese financiers and the Hanyehping Co. have close relations with each other at present and desiring that the common interests of the two nations shall be advanced, agree to the following articles :—

Article 1.—The two Contracting Parties mutually agree that when the opportune moment arrives the Hanyehping Company shall be made a joint concern of the two nations, and they further agree that without the previous consent of Japan, China shall not by her own act dispose of the rights and property of whatsoever nature of the said Company nor cause the said Company to dispose freely of the same.

Article 2.—The Chinese Government agrees that all mines in the neighbourhood of those owned by the Hanyehping Company shall not be permitted, without the consent of the said Company, to be worked by other persons outside of the said Company; and further agrees that if it is desired to carry out any undertaking which, it is apprehended, may directly or indirectly affect the interests of the said Company, the consent of the said Company shall first be obtained.

IV

The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government with the object of effectively preserving the territorial integrity of China agree to the following special article :—

The Chinese Government engages not to cede or lease to a third Power any harbour or bay or island along the coast of China.

V

Article 1.—The Chinese Central Government shall employ influential Japanese as advisers in political, financial and military affairs.

Article 2.—Japanese hospitals, churches and schools in the interior of China shall be granted the right of owning land.

ARTICLE 3.—Inasmuch as the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government have had many cases of dispute between Japanese and Chinese police which caused no little misunderstanding, it is for this reason necessary that the police departments of important places (in China) shall be jointly administered by Japanese and Chinese or that the police departments of these places shall employ numerous Japanese, so that they may at the same time help to plan for the improvement of the Chinese Police Service.

ARTICLE 4.—China shall purchase from Japan a fixed amount of munitions of war (say 50 per cent or more of what is needed by the Chinese Government) or that there shall be established in China a Sino-Japanese jointly worked arsenal. Japanese technical experts are to be employed and Japanese material to be purchased.

ARTICLE 5.—China agrees to grant to Japan the right of constructing a railway connecting Wuchang with Kiukiang and Nanchang, another line between Nanchang and Hangchow, and another between Nanchang and Chaochow.

ARTICLE 6.—If China needs foreign capital to work mines, build railways and construct harbour-works (including dockyards) in the Province of Fukien, Japan shall be first consulted.

ARTICLE 7.—China agrees that Japanese subjects shall have the right of missionary propaganda in China.

TREATIES BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN, MAY, 1915

Treaty Repecting the Province of Shantung

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, having resolved to conclude a Treaty with a view to the maintenance of general peace in the Far East, and the further strengthening of the relations of friendship and good neighbourhood now existing between the two nations, have for that purpose named as their Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:

His Excellency the President of the Republic of China, Lu Cheng-hsiang, *Chung-ching*, First Class *Chia Ho* Decoration, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

And His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, Eki Hioki, *Jushii*, Second Class of the Imperial Order of the Sacred Treasure, Minister Plenipotentiary, and Envoy Extraordinary:

Who, after having communicated to each other their full powers and found them to be in good and due form, have agreed upon and concluded the following Articles:—

ARTICLE 1.—The Chinese Government agrees to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests, and concessions which Germany, by virtue of treaties or otherwise, possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

ARTICLE 2.—The Chinese Government agrees that as regards the railway to be built by China herself from Chefoo or Lungkow to connect with the Kiaochou-Tsinanfu railway, if Germany abandons the privilege of financing the Chefoo-Weihsien line, China will approach Japanese capitalists to negotiate for a loan.

ARTICLE 3.—The Chinese Government agrees in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by China herself as soon as possible certain uitable places in the Province of Shantung as Commercial Ports.

Article 4.—The present treaty shall come into force on the day of its signature.

The present treaty shall be ratified by His Excellency the President of the Republic of China and His Majesty the Emperor of Japan, and the ratification thereof shall be exchanged at Tokio as soon as possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries of the High Contracting Parties have signed and sealed the present Treaty, two copies in the Chinese language and two in Japanese.

Done at Peking this twenty-fifth day of the fifth month of the fourth year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the same day of the same month of the fourth year of Taisho.

Exchange of Notes Respecting Shantung

Monsieur le Ministre,

In the name of the Chinese Government I have the honour to make the following declaration to your Government:—"Within the Province of Shantung or along its coast no territory or island will be leased or ceded to any foreign Power under any pretext."

(Signed) Lu Cheng-hsiang.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Opening of Ports in Shantung

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China herself, as provided in Article 3 of the Treaty respecting the Province of Shantung signed this day, will be selected and the regulations therefore will be drawn up, by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan.

(Signed) Lu Cheng-hsiang.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

Exchange of Notes Respecting the Restoration of the Leased Territory of Kiaochou Bay

Excellency,

In the name of my Government I have the honour to make the following declaration to the Chinese Government:—

When, after the termination of the present war, the leased territory of Kiaochou Bay is completely left to the free disposal of Japan, the Japanese Government will restore the said leased territory to China under the following conditions:—

1. The whole of Kiaochou Bay to be opened as a Commercial Port.
2. A concession under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan to be established at a place designated by the Japanese Government.
3. If the foreign Powers desire it, an international concession may be established.
4. As regards the disposal to be made of the buildings and properties of Germany and the conditions and procedure relating thereto, the Japanese

Government and the Chinese Government shall arrange the matter by mutual agreement before the restoration.

(Signed) Eki Hioki.

His Excellency Lu Cheng-hsiang,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

Treaty Respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia

(Preamble as before.)

Article 1.—The two High Contracting Parties agree that the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dairen and the terms of the South Manchuria Railway and the Antung-Mukden Railway, shall be extended to 99 years.

Article 2.—Japanese subjects in South Manchuria may, by negotiation, lease land necessary for erecting suitable buildings for trade and manufacture or for prosecuting agricultural enterprises.

Article 3.—Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South Manchuria and to engage in business and manufacture of any kind whatsoever.

Article 4.—In the event of Japanese and Chinese desiring jointly to undertake agricultural enterprises and industries incidental thereto, the Chinese Government may give its permission.

Article 5.—The Japanese subjects referred to in the three preceding articles, besides being required to register with the local Authorities passports which they must procure under the existing regulations, shall also submit to the police laws and ordinances and taxation of China.

Civil and criminal cases in which the defendants are Japanese shall be tried and adjudicated by the Japanese Consul; those in which the defendants are Chinese shall be tried and adjudicated by Chinese Authorities. In either case an officer may be deputed to the court to attend the proceedings. But mixed civil cases between Chinese and Japanese relating to land shall be tried and adjudicated by delegates of both nations conjointly in accordance with Chinese law and local usage.

When, in future, the judicial system in the said region is completely reformed, all civil and criminal cases concerning Japanese subjects shall be tried and adjudicated entirely by Chinese law courts.

Article 6.—The Chinese Government agrees, in the interest of trade and for the residence of foreigners, to open by China herself, as soon as possible, certain suitable places in Eastern Inner Mongolia as Commercial Ports.

Article 7.—The Chinese Government agrees speedily to make a fundamental revision of the Kirin-Changchun Railway Loan Agreement, taking as a standard the provisions in railway loan agreements made heretofore between China and foreign financiers.

When, in future, more advantageous terms than those in existing railway loan agreements are granted to foreign financiers in connection with railway loans, the above agreement shall again be revised in accordance with Japan's wishes.

Article 8.—All existing treaties between China and Japan relating to Manchuria shall, except where otherwise provided for by this Treaty, remain in force.

Article 9.—The present Treaty shall come into force on the date of its signature. The present Treaty shall be ratified, etc.

EXCHANGE OF NOTES

(1) *Respecting the Terms of Lease of Port Arthur and Dairen and the Terms of the South Manchuria and Antung-Mukden Railways*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that, respecting the provisions contained in Article I of the Treaty relating to South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, signed this day, the term of lease of Port Arthur and Dairen shall expire in the 86th year of the Republic or 1997. The date for restoring the South Manchuria Railway to China shall fall due in the 91st year of the Republic or 2002. Article 12 in the original South Manchurian Railway Agreement providing that it may be redeemed by China after 36 years from the day on which the traffic is opened is hereby cancelled. The term of the Antung-Mukden Railway shall expire in the 96th year of the Republic or 2007.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(2) *Respecting the Opening of Ports in Eastern Inner Mongolia*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that the places which ought to be opened as Commercial Ports by China herself, as provided in Article 6 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, will be selected, and the regulations therefore will be drawn up, by the Chinese Government itself, a decision concerning which will be made after consulting the Minister of Japan.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(3) *Respecting South Manchuria*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that Japanese subjects shall, as soon as possible, investigate and select mines in the mining areas in South Manchuria specified below, except those being prospected for or worked, and the Chinese Government will then permit them to prospect or work the same; but before the Mining Regulations are definitely settled, the practice at present in force shall be followed.

Fengtien.

Locality	District	Mineral
Niu Hsin T'ai	Pen-hsi	Coal
Tien Shih Fu Kou	,,	,,
Sha Sung Kang	Hai-lung	,,
T'ieh Ch'ang	Tung-hua	,,
Nuan Ti T'ang	Chin	,,
An Shan Chan region	From Liaoyang to Pen-hsi	Iron

Kirin (southern portion).

Locality	District	Mineral
Sha Sung Kang	Ho-lung	Coal and Iron
Kang Yao	Chi-lin (Kirin)	Coal
Chia P'i Kou	Hua-tien	Gold

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.
(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(4) *Respecting Railways and Taxes in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia*

Monsieur le Ministre,

In the name of my Government,

I have the honour to make the following declaration to your Government:—

China will hereafter provide funds for building necessary railways in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia; if foreign capital is required China may negotiate for a loan with Japanese capitalists first: and further, the Chinese Government, when making a loan in future on the security of the taxes in the above-mentioned places (excluding the salt and customs revenue which have already been pledged by the Chinese Central Government) may negotiate for it with Japanese capitalists first.

I avail, etc.,
(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.
(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(5) *Respecting the Employment of Advisers in South Manchuria*

Monsieur le Ministre,

In the name of the Chinese Government, I have the honour to make the following declaration to your Government:—

"Hereafter, if foreign advisers or instructors on political, financial, military, or police matters are to be employed in South Manchuria, Japanese may be employed first."

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.
(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(6) *Respecting the Explanation of "Lease by Negotiation" in South Manchuria*

Excellency,

I have the honour to state that the term "lease by negotiation" contained in Article 2 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day shall be understood to imply a long-term lease of not more than thirty years and also the possibility of its unconditional renewal.

(Signed) EKI HIOKI.

His Excellency Lu Cheng-hsiang.
(Minister of Foreign Affairs.)
(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(7) *Respecting the Arrangement for Police Laws and Ordinances and Taxation in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that the Chinese Authorities will notify the Japanese Consul of the police laws and ordinances and the taxation to which Japanese subjects shall submit according to Article 5 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day so as to come to an understanding with him before their enforcement.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(8) *The Postponement of Articles* 2, 3, 4, *and* 5 *of the Treaty Respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that, inasmuch as preparations have to be made regarding Articles 2, 3, 4, and 5 of the Treaty respecting South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia signed this day, the Chinese Government proposes that the operation of the said Articles be postponed for a period of three months beginning from the date of the signing of the said Treaty.

I hope your Government will agree to this proposal.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(9) *Respecting the Hanyehping Company*

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to state that if in future the Hanyehping Company and the Japanese capitalists agree upon co-operation, the Chinese Government, in view of the intimate relations subsisting between the Japanese capitalists and the said Company, will forthwith give its permission. The Chinese Government further agrees not to confiscate the said Company, nor without the consent of the Japanese capitalists to convert it into a state enterprise, nor cause it to borrow and use foreign capital other than Japanese.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

(Note acknowledged in reply.)

(10) *Respecting the Fukien Question*

Excellency,

A report has reached me to the effect that the Chinese Government has the intention of permitting foreign nations to establish, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; and also of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

I have the honour to request that your Excellency will be good enough to give me a reply stating whether or not the Chinese Government really entertains such an intention.

(Signed) EKI HIOKI.

His Excellency Lu Cheng-hsiang,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.

(Reply.)

Monsieur le Ministre,

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your Excellency's note of this day's date, which I have noted.

In reply I beg to inform you that the Chinese Government hereby declares that it has given no permission to foreign nations to construct, on the coast of Fukien Province, dockyards, coaling stations for military use, naval bases, or to set up other military establishments; nor does it entertain an intention of borrowing foreign capital for the purpose of setting up the above-mentioned establishments.

(Signed) LU CHENG-HSIANG.

His Excellency Eki Hioki,
Japanese Minister.

CHAPTER XXV

GREATER CHINA

I. MONGOLIA

THE following monograph on Mongolia was written for the 1914 edition of the Year Book by the late Lieutenant G. C. Binsteed.[1]

1. Historical

The vaguely used term "Tartars" embraces two great branches of Asiatic races. The parent race of the first of these was the people known to Chinese history as Hsiung-nu, who were probably the same as the Huns, who invaded Europe at a later date. To this Hsiung-nu or Turko-Scythian branch belong the Turks, the Mongols, the Khirghinz, and many lost historical races, of whom the Uigurs are the best known. The other great branch of the Tartar hordes is the Tungusic, to which belong the modern Manchus, Koreans, Solons, Daurs, Orochons, and other races of Manchuria and of the Russian Far East, and also such historical races as the Hsienfu and Kitans (Liao Kuo of Chinese history). All these "Tartars" were originally warlike nomads, and each at one time or another in the past came into intercourse and conflict with the settled populations of North China, whose present inhabitants are largely a mixture of "Tartar" and Chinese stock.

The Hsiung-nu branch as a whole occupied territories to the west of the Tungusic, the two branches inhabiting roughly what is now Mongolia, Manchuria, Sinkiang, and the adjacent parts of Turkestan and Siberia. The first time that we hear of the Mongols as distinct from the other Hsiung-nu tribes is in the ninth century, but all their history prior to the time of Genghiz Khan is largely mythical, and has no bearing on the events of to-day. Even the story of Genghiz Khan is hazy, but it is at least certain that after succeeding in uniting all the Mongol nomads under his own sway (1206 A.D.), he and his generals began that astounding series of conquests about which far more has been written than on all other subjects concerning Mongolia, past and present, put together. Genghiz died in 1227, having carried his arms into North China, Turkestan, the Caucasus, and South Russia.

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[1] The writer acknowledged his indebtedness in certain places to Colonel Baranoff's *Vocabulary of Mongol Terms.*

Other outstanding dates in the earlier history of the Mongols may be briefly tabulated :—

1251–1263. The Mongols conquer Syria, Mesopotamia, Tibet, and Indo-China.
1267. Kublai Khan makes Peking his capital.
1280. Kublai Khan proclaims himself Emperor of China. Died 1295.
1368. End of Yuen (Kublai Khan's) dynasty. The Ming dynasty succeeds in China, and Mongolia becomes separate from China under the rule of its own Khans.
1470. Dayan Khan united Mongolia under a single Khanate, but
1544. dying 1544 divides the country amongst his eleven sons. The death of Dayan Khan marks the breach between Khalka and Inner Mongolia, hitherto united against the common foe, Eleuts.
1616. Manchus united under Nurhachi.
1618. Nurhachi declares war on China. The Inner Mongol Princes begin to acknowledge him and his descendants as their Khan.
1640. Growing menace of Manchu power and secessions among Eleuts give rise to a common Diet of all Eleut and Khalkha Princes with a view to sinking mutual jealousies and uniting against the common danger.
1688. Whole of Khalkha acknowledges the sovereignty of the Manchu Emperor, after discussing the alternative of Russian protection.
1724. Kokonor subjugated by Manchus.
1754–6. Final subjugation of Eleuts.

2. The Tribes and Government of Mongolia

Originally a nomad people in the fullest sense, the Mongols have long been only half nomads. The various tribal organizations have become restricted to a fixed area, and even the individual nomad families now only have two changes of abode a year, in summer and winter, the same family usually resorting to the same two places year after year.

The bases of the true Mongol tribal organization are the Aimak and the Hoshun. All true Mongol ideas of government consist in the ruling of the tribe by hereditary princes whose power over the persons of their people is almost unlimited. The Hoshun is the fief of any one ruling prince, its Jassak. In Chinese it is *Ch'i*^{2}, or Banner. The term principality may also with reason be applied. As regards the Aimak one cannot do better than quote some lines to be found in Colonel Baranoff's *Vocabulary of Mongol Terms:* "Aimak . . . An ancient Mongol name for the fief of a prince, being a group of one or more principalities, which form the inheritance of one princely family. Thus the Aimak is a collection of one or more principalities bound together by singleness of descent and historical past, as the former possession of a single prince, ancestor of the various present reigning princes. . . . With the course of time the Aimaks became divided up into several independent principalities; none the less, the connection between the latter was not broken, and the prince senior in the family is still considered the head of the Aimak." The Chinese name for an Aimak is, in the case of the four Khalkha Aimaks, "*Pu*,"[4] and for the Inner Mongolian Aimaks "*Pu lo*." It is loosely rendered in the Press as "tribe." The next term to be understood is the League, Chinese *Meng*[2], Mongol *Chiguglan*, *Chugulgan*, or *Chulgan*. This is a non-Mongol institution designed by the Ta Ch'ings to weaken the true Mongol tribal organization and foster the gradual passage of power into the hands of the Ta Ch'ing nominee officials. In Khalkha the leagues were made to coincide in composition with the existing Aimaks. In Inner Mongolia the twenty-four Aimaks were irregularly grouped into six Leagues.

Mongolia is now in a transition stage, and it is not possible to predict the nature of the political organization to which the country will settle down when the present trouble is over. It will be sufficient, therefore, to outline the main divisions as they were in 1911.

Mongolia proper, in the administrative sense, consisted in that year of the following :—

(*a*) Mongolia, Inner.

The six Leagues of Inner Mongols.
The Chahars.
The Kukuhoto Tumets (Kuihuacheng Tumets).
The Alashan Mongols (Eleuts).
The Etsingol Old Torguts (Eleuts).

(*b*) Mongolia, Outer.

The four Leagues of Khalkha.
The Kobdo district.
The Altai district.
The Tannu-Urianhai lands.

Outer and Inner Mongolia are somewhat vague terms when applied to the western parts of Mongolia. The autonomous state of Outer Mongolia provided for in the Russo-Chinese Agreement of November, 1913, does not include the Altai district.

Besides all the above there are the following sections of Mongols living outside what is usually understood as Mongolia, but in the former Ta Ch'ing empire :—

(a) Twenty-nine hoshuns of Kokonor Mongols living in the newly-formed Chinese administrative division of Ch'inghai, shown on all but the most recent maps as part of Tibet. (Ch'inghai also contains a non-Mongol population of Tanguts.)

(b) Various tribes of Mongol origin inhabiting Barga or Kulunber (the Hailar district of Heilungkiang).

(c) The Mongol Leagues of Unen-Sutzuktu and Batu-Setkhiltu in the province of Sinkiang or the New Dominion, consisting of Old Torguts and Hoshuts, both of which are Eleuts, in all thirteen hoshuns, inhabiting the valleys of the Yuldus and Kobuk rivers, Kur-Kara-usu and the neighbourhood of Kuldja.

(d) Some Ch'ahars on the river Borotala in Sinkiang (N. of Ili).

The names of the Leagues and other divisions, with their rulers, are given on a later page. Here we may deal with their administration.

Mongolia, Inner

Each Aimak contains one or more hoshuns. Each hoshun has its ruling prince, known as Jassak; the senior in ancestry of the Jassaks of each Aimak is still recognized by the Mongols as historical chief of the Aimak, but has now left to him no authority and no duties in this capacity. All such authority has been transferred either to the Ta Ch'ing institution of the President or Captain-General of the League (Mongol Chigulgan Darga or Daruga; Chinese *Meng Chang*), or to one of the great Chinese officials who severally supervise the affairs of one or other of the Mongol Leagues. The office of Chigulgan Darga, though filled by one of the Jassaks, is not hereditary, but elective. He is chosen by the Diet of the Jassaks of the League, and has to be confirmed by the Bogdo Khan (or now by the President of the Republic). All the Jassaks of the League meet together periodically in a Diet to settle (a) judicial affairs in which persons of different hoshuns are interested; (b) economic and administrative matters concerning the whole League; (c) matters connected with the statistics about the League.

In Inner Mongolia under the Ta Ch'ings all positions filled by Mongols carried with them far less power than the corresponding ones in Khalkha. The greater length of time during which the Inner Mongols have been under Manchu and Chinese influence, their comparative proximity to Peking and the flood of Chinese colonists, have all enabled the Ta Ch'ings, themselves Chinesified Manchus, conquerors assimilated by their subjects, to propagate Chinese influence and institutions over their fellow-conquerors and allies, the Inner Mongols, and to turn the former warlike nomads temporarily into the most peaceful, lazy, and unenterprising of races by the fostering of lamaism, and by the expenses incident to Court functions and visits to Peking to force the formerly wealthy shepherd princes to enslave themselves in irretrievable debt. Thus in Inner Mongolia, the Diets of the Leagues are convened by order of the Peking Government, and a Chinese official is specially deputed to open the Diet, who in reality has all the powers of its President. The clerical work was done by Chinese. The President of the League or Chigulgan Darga has no power of initiative, and only sees to the execution of the Diet's decisions. The Darga has no power to interfere with a Jassak in the local administration of his own hoshun. The Jassaks referred to the Darga only matters which required Imperial sanction, such as appointments to official positions or conferring of titles, and specially important grave sentences for crimes. The orders and decisions of the Peking Government are transmitted through the Darga. In addition the Darga has an assistant called the Ded Darga or Fu Meng Chang. As before mentioned, the control of the Chinese Government is strengthened by the fact that every one of the six Leagues is placed for general supervision under one or other of the great Chinese officials, Chiang Chun or Tu t'ung, whose seats lie in the frontier towns of Mukden, Jehol, Kalgan, Suiyuanch'eng, etc.

To turn to the organization of a hoshun. The Jassak or Ruling Prince inherits his office by primogeniture, and was confirmed by the Emperor. The great majority of Jassaks claim descent from Ghenghiz Khan or his brothers, or at any rate from the same stock. When the Ta Ch'ings took the various princes under their protection they confirmed them in their rights of ruling their own hoshuns and conferred upon them Manchu titles of nobility. Thus all Jassaks belong to one of seven orders of nobility, namely: (Hosho) Ch'in Wang; (To lo) Chün Wang; (To lo) Pei le; (Ku Shan) Pei tze; Chen Kuo Kung (or Mongol, Ulusun Tushe Kung); Fu Kuo Kung (Ulus-tur Tusalakchi Kung); 1st class Taiji. The Ta Ch'ings, however, reserved to themselves the right to remove a Jassak from the administration of his hoshun for conduct unbecoming a prince. Each hereditary title of nobility carries with it a varying yearly allowance in taels and cloth material and also entitles the holder to a certain suite of attendants of a certain number, and various suchlike privileges. The Mongols are particularly fond of titles and privileges, and the Ta Ch'ings consequently obtained great success in their policy of weakening the Mongol princes by the fostering of mutual jealousies and rivalries. The various titles have been conferred and taken away on the slightest pretexts.

Every Jassak of the Inner Mongols had to appear in Peking once in three years to attend the New Year Court functions. Their turn to come was settled by the Li Fan Yuan (now Bureau of Mongolian and Tibetan Affairs).

The Manchus also used the policy of marrying Imperial Princesses to Mongol Princes to bring the latter under Chinese influence.

The Taiji are such hereditary nobles of Mongolia as have not received any of the six Manchu titles. The Taiji are divided into four classes, for each of which are allowed a certain number of Khamjilga or serfs to work for them. They form a hereditary nobility of persons almost always claiming descent from a common ancestor with the Jassak of their hoshun. All Jassaks that have not one of the six Manchu titles are necessarily first-class Taiji.

Besides the Jassaks there are other so-called sealless princes, i.e. Mongolian nobles who, though bearing Manchu titles, have no hoshun to administer. They are generally the descendants of former Jassaks who have been deprived of the seal of office. In the Darkhan Wang Hoshun of Cherim League, there are no less than six such princes besides the Jassak; these six include a Ch'in Wang and a Chün Wang.

The theoretical powers of the Jassak are very great. He controls and decides all the internal affairs of his hoshun. His subjects are practically his serfs, whom he may give away as dowry or as presents to Hubilgans, Gegens, and Hutukhtas (various grades of living Buddhas). He distributes the various state corvées to be furnished by his hoshun and decides disputes between his subjects. But in practice many Jassaks do little or none of the above in person. The experience that primogeniture does not always ensure suitable rulers has led to the institution of official posts, the occupants of which generally manage in reality the affairs of the hoshun.

The chief of these officials are :—

The Túsalakchi Taiji or, in Chinese, Hsieh Li Taiji, Civil Assistant of the Jassak. They are, nominally at any rate, chosen by the Jassak, from amongst the Taiji, and, on the recommendation of the Chinese Superintendent of the League, are confirmed by the President of the Republic (i.e., formerly the Bogdo Khan or Ta Ch'ing Emperor). They generally have a dominating influence in the hoshun, and rule it altogether in the Jassak's absence or minority, or pending the confirmation of a new Jassak after the death of the last. There are generally two Túsalakchi, and sometimes more, in a hoshun, but only one usually administers the hoshun at any one time.

The Tzahírakchi or Military Assistant (Chinese Kuan Ch'i Chang Ching) is usually chosen for his knowledge and ability from amongst the non-Taiji or common Mongols of the hoshun. He nominally looks after the militia which the hoshun is liable to supply for the service of the Bogdo Khan. For this purpose, and also for general administrative purposes, the hoshun is divided into a varying number of Somons (or Sumuns), each nominally supplying 150 horse warriors. The Somon is under a Tzangin or Tso Ling. Six Somons form a Tzalan. There are other officials both at the Prince's headquarters and in the somons, which, however, vary very greatly in different parts and need not detain us. All the above officials are chosen by the Jassak, and their practical peace work in reality consists in tax collecting, criminal catching and other police work, or the routine work of the Prince's yamen.

In practice only one or two officials attend in turn at the Jassak's yamen to transact business. In case of necessity the Jassak calls a council of all his officials. In his yamen are settled criminal and civil judicial cases, the guiding book being a collection of former decisions of the Li Fan Yuan. Records are kept of affairs and expenditures, the clerks employed being known as Bichéchi. The Mongol Princes and their hoshuns pay no actual taxes to the Peking Government, but are bound to supply personnel for the maintenance of postal or "urton" communications.

Mongolia, Outer

By the Russo-Chinese Agreement of November, 1912 (*see* text), an autonomous state of Outer Mongolia is to be formed, and is to include :—

Khalkha ;
Kobdo district and Urianghai.

Urianghai, there is reason to believe, will later be recognized as part of the Russian Empire. Further details as to Chinese representatives to be stationed in future in Autonomous Mongolia will be settled at the coming Tripartite Conference. The organization of Autonomous Mongolia will also probably be reformed.

Mongols outside Mongolia

The Mongols who live outside Mongolia include the Kokonor Mongols, the Bargut Mongols, the Sinkiang Mongols, and in the Russian Empire the Buriats, who inhabit part of the Irkutsk and Transbaikal Provinces around the southern end of Lake Baikal, and, lastly, the Volga Kalmucks.

Kokonor or Ch'inghai was made a Chinese province by Imperial Edict in 1911. Its population consists of (1) Kokonor Mongols ; (2) Tanguts or Hsi-Fan ; (3) Dungans ; and (4) Chinese. The Kokonor Mongols are Eleuts, with one hoshun of Khalkhas. The Sinkiang Mongols are either Eleuts or Ch'ahars.

The Bargut Mongols live in Barga. As special interest attaches to Barga in view of the fact that it has seceded from the rest of Manchuria and has placed itself under the Urga Hutukhta, its complicated organization may be given in some detail.

Barga is the popular local name for the part of Heilungkiang Province which lies west of the Khingan range. To the Chinese it is known as Kulunber (derived from the names of two lakes, Kulun or Dalai Nor, and Buir Nor). Its inhabitants are collectively known as Barguts and consist of Buriats and Eleuts, who are Mongols ; of Solons with some Orochons and Daurs, who are Tungus tribes ; and of Chepchins, whose origin is doubtful. The tribal organization is as follows :—

Barga is divided into Shun or New Barga, containing eight hoshuns, and Huchin or Old Barga, containing nine hoshuns. The eight hoshuns of Shun Barga are all of Buriats, who, about 1735, migrated hither from out of the Tsetsen Khan aimak of Khalkha. Huchin Barga contains six hoshuns of Solons, two hoshuns of Chepchins, and one hoshun of Eleuts. The Solons and Chepchins were transported hither in 1732 from the Tsitsihar and Butkha districts of Heilungkiang Province for being troublesome, the Chepchins having earlier come from Khalkha to Tsitsihar. The Bargut Eleuts are descended from some of the soldiers of Galdan Tseren Khan of the Eleuts or Jungars, who were captured by the Manchus in 1732 and settled here.

All the hoshuns have three somons, except the Eleut hoshun, which has only two. This latter hoshun stands in many ways apart from the organization of the remainder. Shun Barga is divided into two wings, called Right (Daskun), and Left (Tsevul). The eight hoshuns of Huchin Barga are similarly divided, four Solon hoshuns forming the Tsevul wing and two Solon and two Chepchin hoshuns the Daskun wing. Each of the four wings is under an Ugurda. Each pair of hoshuns is under a Golda (or Igilda). The hoshuns have no separate rulers. Each Somon is under a Tzangin. Under the Manchus the hoshuns were formed into the usual Banner Troops organization. Thus the eight hoshuns of Shun Barga and the eight hoshuns of Huchin Barga each formed a complete set of four plain and four Bordered Coloured Banners. The old Eleut Banner was bordered yellow. The whole of the above tribes are nomadic. The Orochons form two hoshuns standing by themselves.

The ultimate fate of Barga is a matter not even mentioned in the

Russo-Chinese Agreement, although it at present forms one State with the new Autonomous Mongolia. The question is an extremely delicate one for international reasons, because Barga, unlike Outer Mongolia, had already been incorporated in the Provinces of China, whose integrity in its old form it is the main object of many Powers to preserve. On the other hand, if Barga were to be allowed to return under Chinese rule and be colonized, the value of the Russo-Chinese Agreement to Russia would be negatived. Barga ethnographically and physically is one with Eastern Khalkha. Meanwhile, with the Chinese Eastern Railway in Russian control, it is difficult for China to undertake any forcible steps against Barga.

3. Chinese Encroachment

When the Manchus ascended the Imperial throne of China in 1644, roughly speaking none of the country north of the Great Wall was inhabited by Chinese. Now large tracts of the above area are peopled almost wholly by Chinese, while in others the Chinese element is steadily increasing and thrusting out the former inhabitants. Manchuria, except for Barga and the mountainous parts of Heilungkiang and Kirin, is wholly a Chinese country. Large areas along the outside of the Great Wall have been incorporated in the Chinese provinces of Chihli and Shansi, and now contain far more Chinese than Mongols. The *ts'ao ti* (grass land), the great steppe-plateau which occupies all the centre of Mongolia, has also been invaded along its southern fringe. The eastern extremity of Mongolia lying east of the Great Khingan, which physically forms a whole with Manchuria, is rapidly being filled with Chinese, and, lastly, Chinese colonization has taken a considerable footing in the valleys between Urga and Kiakhta.

The first of the Mongol nomad lands to be invaded by Chinese colonists were the aimaks of Kharchin and Tumet. This movement followed upon the choice of Jehol by the early Ta Ch'ing Emperors as one of their palaces. Probably encouraged by the favourable accounts given by servants and others returned from the Imperial summer resort and hunting grounds, thousands of Chinese began in the eighteenth century to flock through Kupeik'ou and Hsifengk'ou to occupy the untilled but fertile valleys of the northern mountains.

From Chosotu League the Chinese slowly spread into Aokhan, Onniut, and other aimaks of Chou Uda League.

Chinese administration was not long in following Chinese emigration. Under Kang Hsi the region of Chihli province, which is now subject to the Governor-General of Jehol (Jehol Tu T'ung), was first parcelled into five T'ing, to which two more were later added. The modern names of the headquarters of these seven T'ing were Jehol, Luanp'inghsien, Fengninghsien, Pakou, T'atzukou, Ch'aoyang, and Ch'ihfeng. In 1778 a very important step was taken; it was decided to extend the general provincial system to this extra-mural area; in other words, to incorporate it in the eighteen provinces. It must be remembered that the new area was chiefly made up of Mongol land, originally administered exclusively by the hereditary Mongol Princes. Thus here we find the earliest example of that aggressive policy of Chinesification, so accentuated during the last three decades, whereby the Peking Government seeks to spread purely Chinese institutions into the countries surrounding China proper, a policy to which is chiefly due the secessionist tendencies now exhibited in Mongolia and Tibet.

The pretext for the introduction of Chinese administration was the necessity for controlling the increasingly large Chinese population which even then was notorious for its disorderly elements. But, in the event, the remedy has proved of little avail. Extra-mural Chihli has ever been and still is remarkable for its robber bands, general lawlessness, and the repeated crises of disorder which have swept over it.

In the latter parts of the period during which we have already traced the spread of Chinese beyond Kupeik'ou and Hsifengk'ou, these land-hungry farmers had also pushed out to the east and to the west of their first line of invasion. The provincial system of administration has also been extended over Chahar and Kuihuacheng Tumet. But it must be remembered that theoretically the Mongol element continues to be ruled according to its original system of leagues, aimaks, and hoshuns by its Mongol princes and officials. Yet in practice the Chinese administrative organs yearly exert an increasing influence even outside their own proper sphere of the Chinese population.

Unlike colonization in the Chosotu and Chou Uda areas, which was never promoted by the Chinese Government but was the outcome of natural causes, the settling of Chahar and other parts of the *ts'ao ti* (grass lands) has been pushed on by colonization bureaux which have been established at Kuihuacheng and Kalgan. The writer has no details as to the degree of success achieved in this direction, but it is certain that the warfare and brigandage of which Inner Mongolia has lately been the scene must have dealt a serious blow to all settled forms of enterprise.

As regards the progress of colonization in the Cherim League far more information is forthcoming owing to the investigations and writings of several members of the Harbin Society of Russian Orientalists.

For a very long time the Ta Ch'ings actively opposed the spread of Chinese into Manchuria or distant parts of Mongolia. It was only in 1878 that they repealed the law that Chinese women were not allowed under death penalty to be taken to these parts. A curious survival of this prohibition is still seen in the fact that in Northern Mongolia and Northern Manchuria Chinese women as wives are practically nowhere to be found, while their number in any capacity is very small. The change in Ta Ch'ing policy to one of active promotion of Chinese immigration is due largely to the fear of Russia caused by the southward advances of the latter power in the years 1860 and 1900. In spite of Government disapproval, immigration had developed considerably in Manchuria and the adjacent fringe of Cherim even before the years 1876–1880 when the Government made various reforms and instituted bureaux for promoting the settlement of vacant lands. However, until 1902 the colonization of Cherim was really unaided by the officials. But in 1901 Governor-General

(Chiang Chun) Sa Pao, alarmed by the Russian invasion of Manchuria and by the friendly attitude of some Korchin princes towards the foreigners, sent in an important memorial to the Throne strongly recommending that every means should be employed to plant a large Chinese element in Cherim and along the line of the new Russian railway. As a result of this memorial there was instituted a most successful and elaborately organized system of expropriation of lands belonging to the Mongol Hoshuns for the purpose of sale to Chinese farmers.

In general the system is as follows: In the hoshuns where it is proposed to expropriate land, offices called *Ken*[3] *wu*[4] *chü*[2] (colonization bureaux) are set up at certain points for the purpose of measuring and selling the lots. Each Mongol family has preserved for it at least 90 shang (2 square li) in the place usually frequented by it. Land is also reserved for Mongol temples. The remaining land or such of it as it is proposed to expropriate is assessed under three classes, according to quality: these classes of land are sold respectively for taels 4·4, 2·4, and 1·4. Half the sale price goes to the Jassak (prince) of the hoshun concerned, half to the Chinese Government. To cover expenses of measurement 15 per cent on sale price is demanded in addition and an extra 15 per cent in the case of lands for villages and towns is levied and given to the Jassak. On purchase only seven-tenths of the total area is taken into account in reckoning the price. Mongols who require more than their share of 90 shang per family must buy from the expropriated land on the same conditions as the Chinese. From each shang of expropriated land sold a tax of 0·66 tiao is collected, of which 0·24 tiao goes to the Jassak. In the case of the hitherto virgin land this tax is, however, only levied after five years have elapsed. As stated above, before this Government organized system came into being there were already many Chinese farmers working land which they had acquired by some kind of private agreement. These already ploughed lands were often situated in the area destined for the official expropriation, and in such cases the workers had to make good their claims by purchasing the land from the colonization bureau at the same rates as if it were virgin soil.

Besides the free unaided colonization and the Government organized colonization which superseded it, two other forms were also used in Eastern Mongolia. Of these, one was colonization by soldiers and gangs of workmen. This was applied in a few cases where it was desired to found a Chinese settlement at a given point with the least possible delay. The other form was what has been called "commercial." Large Chinese firms bought considerable tracts of land, which they re-let in small lots to farmers, having previously made the land suitable for agriculture by building farmhouses and digging wells. The owner lets it to the tenant for five years in exchange for half the yearly harvest. As a result the owner in these five years makes about 40 per cent profit on his outlay in improvements and buildings, whilst the value of his land has been increased by the labour of the tenant. The latter at the end of five years may buy the land outright.

The whole of the Cherim area, provided China continues to prosper under its new Government, will soon be incorporated in a new province, or new tao. An important conference on the affairs of Cherim was held at Ch'angch'un in October, 1913, between Chinese officials and some of the Mongol Jassaks.

To move to the other end of Inner Mongolia, we find that Chinese colonization has slowly been extended along the borders of Shensi and Kansu and out along the great highways to Kuldja and Kashgar. This however takes us out of Mongolia, so we must pass on to the only remaining area where Chinese colonists have taken a firm hold, namely, in the valleys of the Tola, Hara Gol, Iro and Orkhon north of Urga. This movement began about 1880. With the object of forming a Chinese bulwark against Russian encroachment the Urga Amban began to foster the settling of Chinese farmers, to whom were allotted large areas in the fertile valley bottoms, in exchange for which they paid a small rent of 1 ch'ien weight of silver per mou to the hoshun concerned. The land was measured out in the roughest possible way, and the farmer was forced to accept much useless land together with the good, and paid the low rental on good and bad alike. The slipshod methods of the incompetent Ta Ch'ing officials are now being paid for heavily by the unfortunate farmers, from whom the new Urga Government, in pursuance of its anti-Chinese policy, is exacting 1 ch'ien 6 fen, and from next year, for three years onwards, 2 ch'ien 5 fen, per mou per year. The farmer naturally requested that under the new rates he should be allowed to repudiate the useless land which he was originally forced to accept in order to save the officials the trouble of proper measurement. The Urga Government, however, partly because it has no wish to encourage Chinese agriculture and partly because it has no organization capable of carrying out the necessary readjustment, insists on receiving the new raised rental on all land signed for in the original agreements, or else on evicting the farmer. As a result many farmers have returned to China, but the great majority remain on, because they have in the course of years surrounded themselves with considerable wealth, represented in buildings, furniture, and flour mills, all of which, unlike their live stock, they would be quite unable either to realize in money or to remove to China. Again, unions with Mongolian women tie many to their farms. Thus, though the farmers say they can now make no profit, it is still their best course to stay on and live upon their property.

The influx of Chinese into this area was further greatly promoted by the opening of work in the goldfields of the Iro basin by the Mongolyor Company in the last years of last century. In consequence of the disabilities enforced upon them by the Urga Government, the number of these coolies has also greatly decreased. Nearly all the Chinese in the Urga-Kiakhta region are Shansi men, *lao hsi 'rh*, except for a considerable community of Peking traders in Urga itself.

In Barga, Chinese colonization, which had as yet not succeeded in taking root, was finally eradicated by the secession of that area in January, 1912. In Kobdo likewise the few Chinese colonists have fled as the result of the fighting in the early half of 1912. In Altai also the Chinese colonists, so far as is known, are very few.

In the above sketch only colonists have been considered, traders being left out of account. As is well known, in 1911 Chinese traders were to be found everywhere in Mongolia, but now they have almost wholly deserted N.W. Mongolia, though numbers still remain in and around Urga and Kiakhta and in the eastern half of Khalkha, whilst in the parts of Mongolia under Chinese control they are still ubiquitous.

4. The Events of the Last Few Years

To attempt to sketch, however briefly, the history of the Mongolian Question is difficult, because not only does a great deal of doubt still exist as to the motive of and rôle played by the various parties to the situation, but even our knowledge of the events is sometimes very deficient, especially as regards what happened in Inner Mongolia.

Mongol grievances against China.

The Mongol grievances against China were as follows :—The Mongols realized that the extension of Chinese colonization and the formation of Chinese garrisons meant the gradual extinction of that autonomy, the enjoyment of which the Ta Ch'ing Emperors had guaranteed to the Jassaks. Moreover, Chinese superior business ability caused the Mongol to be always the loser in any dealings with Chinese, and this caused a certain racial hostility, which is not, however, so acute as it is often represented.

Russian motives.

The motives underlying Russian action are a desire to preserve a buffer between her, as yet, thinly-peopled empire in Asia and the areas inhabited by the ever-spreading Chinese. This desire is the result of a real fear of the Chinese from the economic point of view, and of the knowledge, based on experience, that the Chinese can easily out-trade the Russian, and in an area inhabited in common would eventually have the Russian working for him.

Secondly, Russia had no desire to see a Chinese modern military force trained and quartered in Outer Mongolia. However inferior to her own troops, and however small this force might be, it would nevertheless constitute a menace against her long line of communications with the Far East, and in the event of another war on the Pacific coast Russia would have had to set aside a suitable force to watch these Chinese troops in case they attempted a sudden inroad towards the Siberian Railway.

Thirdly, Russia, looking far ahead, wished to maintain free of any strong alien element all that part of Mongolia which lies north of the natural frontier which ought to bound her Siberian possessions on the south, the direction of which is generally roughly described as running from near Vladivostok along the vague line of the Gobi to near Chuguchak. This does not mean that there has ever been any serious question of annexing Outer Mongolia or of colonizing it. Russia has far too much to do in Siberia to desire the further burdens which would be represented in the colossal task of developing Outer Mongolia. But Russia would like it kept free from development by anyone else, or at any rate by the Chinese, so that it shall remain a potential field for the employment of such commercial and industrial energy which is or may become superfluous in Siberia. Finally, when Siberia is fully developed, then it will be time to reconsider the political status of Outer Mongolia.

In addition to the Mongolian grievances against the Chinese, there was also a certain positive national aspiration which may be termed Pan-Mongolianism—a desire to see all the sections of the race reunited. This aspiration was connected with the legend of Amursana, a hero prince who was one of the last of the Eleuts to withstand the Manchu power and who, it is said, is to reappear and lead the Mongol race to victory. Opinions differ as to the strength and influence on recent events of these nationalist aspirations, and it is probable that they were stronger amongst the more enlightened Inner Mongols than amongst the purely nomadic Khalkhas.

Pan-Mongolianism.

The last Chinese Amban in Urga, by name San-to, adopted a very forward policy in his area. In 1911 barracks for a division of Chinese troops were begun at Urga and many Chinese military officers arrived there, the immigration of Chinese colonists, coolies, and traders was promoted, and Mongol princes were taken to task for their relations with Russians. The further San-to went in his pro-Chinese policy, the more the secret Mongol opposition increased. Urga became the centre of a conspiracy of anti-Chinese princes who gathered around the Urga Hutukhta as their leader. In July, 1911, a secret deputation of Mongol princes proceeded to Petrograd to request the assistance of Russia in their proposed plans for safeguarding the autonomy of Mongolia and gaining its independence. In the autumn of the same year the Revolution broke out in China proper, and the Mongols seized the opportunity to carry out a *coup d'état* in Urga on December 1. San-to and all his subordinate Chinese officials and the Chinese troops in Urga were forced to quit Khalkha and return to China. The Urga Hutukhta was proclaimed as Ruler of Mongolia. A Mongol Ministry of five portfolios was formed. But almost from the very beginning the influential princes in Urga split into two factions. One is variously styled the Military or pro-Russian Party, the other the Nationalist or Da Lama's Party. The first is, perhaps, sufficiently described by its name; the second advocated a conciliatory policy towards China, the avoidance of warfare and the consequent scarcity and dearness of goods by the conclusion of a compromise with Peking, the maintenance of the pacifist and lamaistic traditions of the people, and the attraction of the trade of the great Western commercial nations. At first the Da Lama, a most influential and popular personality, assisted by the Kharchin Prince Hai San Kung, universally recognized as the cleverest organizer of the *coup d'état*, seemed to have the upper hand. But later on in the autumn of 1912 a new post, that of Premier, was created and filled by Sain Noin Khan for the express purpose of counteracting the Da Lama, who was Minister of Interior. Since then the Da Lama's party has been nearly powerless, but, on the other hand, there appears to have set in a general reaction of feeling against Russia.

Events leading up to the Urga *Coup d'état*.

Politics in Urga.

The fact that, whereas the princes in Urga believed that with Russia's help they could create a united Mongolia, Russia on her side could not for international reasons, even if she had desired it, really attempt to obtain from China the autonomy of all Mongolia, or the independence of any part thereof, has been the chief political cause of the anti-Russian reaction, just as the scarcity and dearness of commodities due to Russia's failure to take the place of the Chinese in trade has been its chief economic cause.

In September, 1913, the Urga Ministry was composed as follow:—

Premier, Sain Noin Khan; Interior, Da Lama[1]; War, Dalai Wang; Foreign Affairs, Han Ta Ch'in Wang (Han Da Dorji); Justice, Erdeni Wang (formerly Namsarai Kung); and Finance, Tushetu Wang.

Secession of Barga.

In January, 1912, Barga followed the example of Khalkha. In the case of Barga also the hostility of the natives to the Chinese Government was evoked by the latter's policy for "strengthening the frontiers" and creating a Chinese element there. Since 1906 Chinese troops had gradually been introduced, new taxes and customs dues had been instituted, land had been set aside for settlement by Chinese, the general provincial system of administrative divisions (*fu*^{3} and *t'ing*^{1}) and a post of Taot'ai were introduced, and lastly, in 1911, it was decided to institute a number of schools at which the Barguts were to be taught Chinese. Fearing that these innovations would gradually lead to the extinction of their national individuality, a congress of Bargut leaders in September, 1911, made the following demands to the Chinese authorities:—

(a) Removal of Chinese officials and transference of the whole local administration to Bargut authorities.

(b) Removal of Chinese troops.

(c) Cessation of Chinese colonization.

As well as other demands naturally consequent upon the above.

The Chinese authorities refused, and the state of affairs in China proper gave the Barguts their opportunity to revolt. After two small engagements they turned all the Chinese officials and troops out of their territory.

Barga joins Khalkha.

According to Russian sources, the new Bargut authorities first made overtures to the Russian representatives with a view to annexation. Seeing that Barga was considered by the world in general as part of one of the provinces of China, Russia had to refuse to annex it, and advised the Barguts to negotiate for a compromise with China. These negotiations came to nothing, and then the Barguts, either with or without the knowledge or advice of Russia, proposed to the Urga Hutukhta that Barga should form part of his new dominions. This offer was accepted, and in May, 1912, a leading Bargut, Sheng Fu, was installed at Hailar as the Urga Hutukhta's viceroy and styled Amban.

Part played by Russia in Secessions.

In the carrying out of the two above secessions from China, there is much evidence to support the view that assistance from Russians played a very important part. The arms used by the Mongols and Barguts were chiefly supplied to them from Russia. At the same time it was chiefly due to the Russian official representatives that the Chinese minority escaped a worse fate.

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[1] Died 1915.

Kobdo joins Khalkha.

During the early half of 1912 the newly-formed Urga Government extended its authority first to Uliassutai and then to the district of Kobdo. The latter town and its vicinity was the scene of several engagements between the Mongols and Chinese troops based on the Altai district. To the Governorship of the latter district the Peking Government at the end of 1911 had appointed Prince Palta, perhaps the most remarkable figure in the whole Mongolian Question. An old Torgut by birth, he was educated in Japan, and had learnt to foster strong distrust and dislike of Russia. In the days of the Empire at Peking he became acquainted with all the other prominent Mongol princes, and soon came to be regarded as one of the most enlightened and clever. In his new post of Governor of Altai he was in a position of great independence, and his adherence to the Mongol cause would have been a serious blow to the Chinese Government. In spite of attempts to persuade him to change sides, he has remained faithful to China. Under the new Russo-Chinese Agreement Altai remains outside Autonomous Outer Mongolia, although in the old Manchu days this area, which was under Kobdo, was undoubtedly considered part of Outer Mongolia. This result may be partly due to Prince Palta's action, or it may simply be that Russia preferred the Mongolian Altai Mountains as the boundary of the buffer.

Chinese conciliate Inner Mongol Princes.

In the meantime the Chinese Republican Government was busy trying to counteract the secessionist movement. Having failed utterly to dissuade or overawe the Urga Government itself, Peking concentrated its attention on trying to retain the adherence of the Inner Mongol princes. Here the task was easier. Most of the Inner Mongol princes own property in Peking, and this could easily be confiscated in the event of their not acting as China desired. In addition, President Yuan Shih-kai and Gung Sang Norbu, Prince Kharchin (Kalachin), head of the Mongolian and Tibetan Bureau, applied with considerable success the old methods of the Manchus in the bestowal of presents, rewards, titles, and decorations. The result was that most of the princes outside Khalkha and Kobdo outwardly, at any rate, declared their adherence to the Republic. But this meant very little because the territories of these princes often contained no Chinese soldiers, the princes could not in all cases answer for the attitude of their subjects, and often dared not return to their country for fear of Khalkha troops.

Russians train Khalkha troops.

T'aonanfu. August and September, 1912.

Meanwhile a start had been made with the creation of a Mongol army in Urga. In March a Russian officer, Captain Vasilieff, with ten N.C.O. instructors began to train troops near Urga, and later the "Mongolian Brigade" was formed at Hudjir Bulun (5 miles E. of Urga), being a training depôt under Colonel Nadyojni, assisted by some ten officers and a staff of N.C.O.'s. During the latter part of 1912 Peking was constantly warned that the Khalkhas intended to move southward. In August, 1912, there occurred the first serious outbreak in Inner Mongolia. Prince Wutai, Jassak of the Jassaktu Wang hoshun of Korchin in Cherim League, whose land lies around T'aonanfu, raised a revolt in that area, possibly expecting outside assistance. No actual assistance was given, and the rebellion was speedily and severely crushed by the

Chinese troops that were hurried up from Chihli. Wutai himself, with the remnant of his followers, fled to Urga, and his uncle was appointed by Peking to replace him as Jassak.

Warfare in Inner Mongolia, 1913. Later on in 1913 bands of Russian-trained Khalkhas, together with many Inner Mongols, many of whom were well-known brigands in Manchuria, appeared in Ulanchap, Ch'ahar, Silingol, and northern Chou Uda and began to attack all Chinese. Chinese troops were sent up to repress them, and slowly advanced from the three bases of Jehol, Kalgan, and Kuihuacheng. Fighting of a desultory character occurred at many places, especially round K'ailuhsien, in Bairin, round the southern Dalai Nor, along the Kalgan-Urga roads, and north and west of Kuihuacheng. The Mongols, using the methods of ultra-mobile bands, have always had a great advantage in the boundless dry steppe of the plateau over the slow-moving Chinese columns. Both sides have badly treated the wretched inhabitants, and both peaceful Mongols and Chinese are as much afraid of their own soldiers as of those of the enemy. In most cases of collision the Mongols seem to have got the better of the fight, and at the setting in of the winter the Chinese apparently hold little of the country north of the line of Kuihua (top of the pass leading from Kalgan to the plateau—Dolon Nor (Lamamiao)—Chinpeng (Biru hoto)—Ch'ihfeng (Hata).

Warfare deprives Khalkha of goods. The chief effect of all this fighting and brigandage was that the Chinese firms remaining in Khalkha could obtain no goods, the baneful results of which have been explained elsewhere.

Mongol-Chinese negotiations. In 1912 the Government of Yuan Shih-kai exchanged several dispatches with that of Urga on the subject of their mutual relations, but since both sides took an uncompromising stand, nothing whatever came of these negotiations, and they were not renewed. **Russo-Chinese negotiations.** Russia then began to negotiate with the Chinese Government with a view to China recognizing the *fait accompli* of Outer Mongolian autonomy in exchange for a recognition of Chinese suzerainty over all Mongolia, and an absolutely free hand in all Mongolia exclusive of Kobdo and Khalkha. Earlier, almost immediately after the Urga *coup d'état*, the Russian Government had issued a declaration to the effect that it was willing to mediate between the Chinese and Urga Governments on the above basis, but it was not until November, 1913, that an agreement with China was concluded, and in the following year the relations between Outer Mongolia and China were settled at a Tripartite Conference held at Kiakhta. (See p. 593.)

Russo-Urga Convention. Russia in the meantime had decided to strengthen still further the *fait accompli* by concluding, independently of China, a Convention with the Urga Government. Thus on November 3, 1912, M. Korostovetz, specially deputed for the purpose, signed with the Mongol authorities the Urga Convention and its attached Protocol, the text of which is given on another page.

5. Mongolia as a Market

Trade in Mongolia has certain peculiar characteristics arising from the backward state of the country and its people and their nomadic form of life.

There is no regular currency in Mongolia. In those parts where Chinese predominate, some forms of the various Chinese coinages are in use. Chinese lump silver is accepted everywhere. Russian silver coins and Russian Government notes are accepted almost everywhere in Outer Mongolia. Before the Urga *coup d'état* Chinese notes and dollars were also used there. But all the above methods of exchange are overshadowed by that of barter. The great volume of trade consists in exchanging the manufactured and food wants of the Mongols for their live stock and its raw and semi-manufactured products. This barter system is in practice most advantageous to the trader because it obviates the profit of a middle man.

Another peculiarity of much of Mongolian trade is the necessity for credit in many transactions. The Mongol needs goods and food all the year round, but the live stock and raw products which he can give in exchange are only fit for acceptance at certain definite seasons. Cattle can only be accepted to be driven a long way to China or Russia when it is already fat and has recovered from the winter scarcity, otherwise, if thin at the start, it would not stand the journey. Furs can only be given in the hunting season in autumn and winter, wool after shearing, and so forth. Thus the trader frequently has to wait a long period after handing over his manufactured goods before he can receive the raw produce or livestock for which he has bargained. This makes it necessary that the trader in his turn also should be able to command credit.

The Mongol has never been provided with superior quality goods, and the consequence is he is always quite satisfied with very inferior articles. He is of very conservative tastes, and having become accustomed to a particular class or pattern of goods he is loath to use any others, even though the new ones present many advantages.

Transport in Mongolia, if properly managed, may be made to cost very little.

Exports are in almost all cases exported by foreign traders. They include : (1) Live stock—horses, large-horned cattle, sheep, camels, goats. (2) Raw produce—sheep's wool, hides of all kinds, furs (including sable, marmot, bear, squirrel, fox), sheep-skins, camel's hair, horse-hair, fat, timber, salt from lakes and saltpetre, mushrooms dried, deer horns for medicinal purposes. (3) Semi-manufactured produce—felt imports, from or through Russia, include the following : cotton manufactured goods for clothing, metal goods, enamel-ware and hardware, dressed skins, sugar and sugar confections, groceries and haberdashery, iron, tobacco, spirit and wines.

The Chinese imports into Mongolia included : cotton sheetings and other piece goods for clothing purposes (the bulk of these were of British origin), silks, brick tea, metal goods (e.g. cooking utensils, kettles, cups, jugs, basins, trivets, stirrups and bits, knives, ladles, axes, fire-tongs, buttons, needles; Borkhans (figures and pictures of lamaistic deities) and other ecclesiastical paraphernalia, incense and rosaries; flour, millet, Chinese vermicelli, cakes; wooden goods, e.g. cups and other vessels, boxes, cupboards, parts for yurts; paper; tobacco, pipes, snuff-bottles, etc.; spirit; haberdashery and ornaments for apparel; sewing-cotton and mending-wool; brushes, combs; boots.

The following notes on Mongolian trade are taken from a Consular Report of the United States Department of Commerce:—

The total area of Mongolia is estimated at 1,200,000 square miles. Part of this area is desert, but the possibilities of Mongolia as a whole may be estimated from a report of a Chinese delegation which was sent in 1916 to investigate conditions in the Four Eastern Leagues of Inner Mongolia. The area of this district was reported to be 20,000 square li (a li is about a third of a mile), with a population of 400,000. The annual production of the district was stated as follows: Oxen, 1,500,000 head; sheep, 4,500,000 head; cereals, 4,000,000 piculs (a picul is 133⅓ pounds); wool, 200,000 catties (a cattie is 1⅓ pounds); camel hair, 60,000 catties; wild animal skins, 100,000. Another indication of Mongolia's wealth of pastoral products is given in the Hsifengkou Customs returns of exports for 1915, as follows: Wool, 660,116 catties; goat hair, 21,075 catties; woollen cloth, 4,465 catties; camel hair, 23,960 catties; bristles, 58,323 catties; sheep and goat skins, 47,566 pieces; cow hides, 1,268 pieces; other hides, 824 pieces. Comprehensive figures are hard to get because of the lack of a systematized Chinese statistical service. Foreigners who trade with Mongolia say that the only word to apply to its resources in pastoral products is "unlimited."

Several trade routes into Russia exist, and some into Manchuria, but at present the chief lines of traffic are through Lanchowfu in Kansu, through Suiyuan in Shansi, and through Kalgan in Chihli. Lanchowfu is reached from the Chinese coast by the Yellow River, and from there caravans cross the desert into central-western Mongolia. Suiyuan and Kalgan are reached from Tientsin and Peking by the Peking-Suiyuan Railway, which was opened to traffic as far as Kalgan in 1911, and to Fengchen in 1915. It will probably not be complete to Suiyuan before the end of the war. Until then the gap between Fengchen and Suiyuan will have to be filled up by camels.

Kalgan, a gate in the Great Wall of China, 125 miles north-west of Peking, is the present chief entrepôt of Mongolian trade. It is a picturesque Chinese-Mongolian city of 60,000 inhabitants. The Mongolian Trading Co. in June, 1917, inaugurated a motor-car service between Kalgan and Urga, 1,200 miles. This service is provided by three American machines, which cover the distance in six days against four weeks by camel. The round trip is made once a month, and is so far mainly a passenger service, which already has become profitable. Rich Mongolians and Chinese willingly pay $350 (Chinese currency) for the round trip, and the line also has some Japanese patrons. Camels remain, however, the chief carriers of freight.

Cattle and sheep for export through China come down to Kalgan on the hoof, and so plentiful is feed along the way that owners do not have to invest heavily in provisions. The animals travel by day and graze at night, reducing the cost of bringing them to Kalgan to a minimum.

Mongolian hides are no less plentiful than Mongolian meat. Furs of every kind come into Kalgan, from the costly sable to the countless and consequently cheap wild cats, whose fur forms the popular lining of Chinese winter clothes. Mongolian and Chinese furriers have not, however, learned the art of curing very well, and skins for export are now preferably shipped raw. Wool, it is stated on good authority, can be bought in Mongolia at 45s. a picul and transported to Kalgan for 30s. or 35s. It sold in Kalgan in 1917 at £9 a picul.

The manner of buying and paying for Mongolian produce is unique. Mongolia is still divided into tribes, and most of the tribal business is done by chiefs or princes. It is customary to make contracts in advance with the princes for any large quantity of goods, and the princes collect from their subjects the things that are desired. These contracts may be guaranteed by the central Government at Urga, which consists of a ministry of five men, including the head Lama of Mongolia. It is said that no contract guaranteed by the central Government has ever been broken, and very few of the contracts with princes without the guaranty. It is, of course, necessary to make advance payments on large contracts, for cattle, cereals, fur, and wool can be delivered only at a certain season, while the needs of the producers are constant; but these advance payments are regarded as absolutely safe, especially if the central Government has guaranteed the contract. The investment of capital in Mongolian trading would mean an immediate and great expansion of that trade.

In past years payment has been made to a considerable extent by barter—the exchange of cotton and other wearing apparel, small hardware, tea, tobacco, etc., for hides, cattle, wool, etc. More recently the larger part of the payments has been made in lump silver, and Chinese and Russian silver and paper money. The Mongolians feel very keenly a need for a silver currency of their own, for Chinese silver is growing scarce, and the paper rouble and Chinese paper notes have been sadly depreciating. They also need increased banking facilities. The Bank of China has a branch at Urga, but the Bank of China has not been a very great factor in finance in the past two or three years, while the Russian banks in Mongolia have almost gone out of business. The Bank of Chosen (Japanese) has recently been authorized to operate in Inner Mongolia, and will probably issue notes for Mongolian circulation, as it is now doing along the line of the South Manchuria Railway. It was announced, November 29, 1917, that the Bank of Chosen hereafter would have a monopoly of the Japanese note issue in Manchuria, substituting its notes for those of the Yokohama Specie Bank now in circulation there.

The Tripartite Conference

In Article 4 of the Russo-Chinese Agreement of November 5, 1913, it was arranged that Russia should use her good offices with the Government of Outer Mongolia to secure its acceptance of the terms of the agreement, which provided for the autonomy of Outer Mongolia under the suzerainty of China. [The Russo-Mongolian Treaty of November, 1912, had recognized the "independence" of Outer Mongolia.] It was not until September, 9, 1914, that the objections of the Hutukhta to a tripartite conference were overcome and the representatives of Russia, China, and Outer Mongolia met at Kiakhta. The conference lasted until June, 1915, when an agreement was reached between the three parties. Outer Mongolia recognized the Russo-Chinese agreement of November, 1913, relative to Mongolia; it accepted the suzerainty of China, while Russia and China recognized the autonomy of Outer Mongolia, which (the agreement stated) is a part of Chinese territory. China secured a geographical delimitation of Outer Mongolia, which disposed of any claims on the part of the latter to extend to Inner Mongolia. A Chinese

Resident was to be appointed to reside in Urga, but China undertook not to interfere with the internal affairs of Outer Mongolia.

Shortly after the agreement had been signed Cheng Lu, one of the delegates at the conference, was appointed Resident General at Urga, with the rank of Lieutenant-General, and left Peking in August to take up his new post, accompanied by Assistant Residents for Kiakhta, Kobdo and Uliassutai. A summary of the agreement is given below.

TREATIES AFFECTING MONGOLIA

I. The Russo-Mongolian Agreement, 1912

An agreement between Mongolia and Russia was signed at Urga on November 3, 1912, by the Hutukhta Lama and M. Korostovetz, formerly Russian Minister to Peking.

The treaty as published comprised four articles, of which the following is a translation :—

Whereas His Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias and the Hutukhta Je-tsun-Dampa, Sovereign of Mongolia, desiring to come to an understanding and in order to cement the relations of friendship between the two countries, have named their plenipotentiaries to make an agreement relating to different matters.

The following named plenipotentiaries, furnished with full powers, Ivan Korostovetz, Actual Privy Councillor and Envoy Extraordinary ; Saimnaim Khan (of) Nansurum, the patron of 100,000 Truths, Prime Minister ; Erdeni-deitzin Khan (of) Dergi, Minister of Foreign Affairs ; Tuchetuzui, Duke of Chakdorgab, Minister of Finance ; Endenidaluizin, Duke of Gombosum, Minister of War ; Endemizum, Duke of Nomsarai, Minister of Justice, have agreed on the following stipulations :—

1. The Imperial Russian Government will give its aid to Mongolia in order that Mongolia may maintain its independence and preserve its settled organizations and also the right of having its national troops and of refusing to allow either Chinese troops or Chinese colonization in its territory.

2. The Sovereign of Mongolia and the Mongolian Government will permit to Russian subjects and to Russian trade the same privileges and rights as formerly enjoyed. These privileges and rights are set forth at length in the Protocol below. It is further understood that other nations cannot enjoy any more rights in Mongolia than those given to Russia.

3. If the Mongolian Government finds it necessary to enter into any separate treaty with China or any other foreign Power, it is understood that this Treaty may not be infringed on or altered in any way without first obtaining the consent of the Imperial Russian Government.

4. The present Treaty of friendship is to come into force from the date of signature.

IA. RUSSO-MONGOLIAN PROTOCOL

The following précis of the Russo-Mongolian Protocol, signed on November 3, 1912, has been published by Reuter's Agency. Reference is made textually to Mongolia, not to Outer Mongolia only.

In accordance with Article II of the Russo-Mongolian Agreement signed to-day, the Russian plenipotentiary, M. Korostovetz, and the Mongolian plenipotentiaries authorized for the purpose by Mongolian Sovereign Princes, have agreed on the following in regard to the rights and privileges of Russians in Mongolia and of Mongols in Russia :—

(1) Russian subjects shall, as in the past, have the right freely to live and travel in all parts of Mongolia, to conduct business, establish factories, and arrange affairs with all individuals or companies, official or private, whether of Russian, Mongol, Chinese, or other nationality.

(2) Russian subjects shall, as in the past, have the right to import and export at all times all products and manufactures of Russia, Mongolia, China, and other countries duty free, and to conduct free trade exempt from all duties and taxes.

(3) Russian banks shall have the right to establish branch banks throughout Mongolia, and conduct banking business with all individuals and companies.

(4) Trade can be conducted for ready money or on credit, but in the case of credit transactions the Mongol Princes or the Treasury cannot be held responsible for the credit of private individuals.

(5) No monopoly can be established either in commerce or manufacture. The Mongolian authorities shall not prevent Mongols or Chinese from doing business with Russian subjects nor prevent their employment in Russian commercial and industrial enterprises.

(6) Russian subjects shall have the right to lease or buy land in all towns and cities throughout Mongolia and establish commercial enterprises and manufactures, build houses, stores, and go-downs, and lease vacant land for agricultural purposes. Pasture lands and places set apart for religious purposes are not included.

(7) Russian subjects are free to arrange with the Mongolian Government concessions regarding mining, forestry, fishing, and other business enterprises.

(8) The Russian Government shall have the right to establish Consulates in Mongolia wherever it is deemed necessary after consultation with the Mongolian Government. The latter shall have a corresponding right to appoint Mongolian representatives along the Russian frontier.

(9) Wherever Russian Consulates are established or Russian business is conducted, Russian trade settlements can be established, which will be under the administration of Russian Consuls, or where there are no Consuls, under the administration of the senior Russian merchant.

(10) Russian post offices can be established throughout Mongolia, with postal services to the Russian frontier, at the cost of the Russian Government.

(11) Russian Consuls shall have the right to use Mongolian post stations without charge, provided that the number of horses to be furnished by the Mongols shall not exceed one hundred monthly nor the number of camels thirty.

(12) All Mongolian rivers flowing into Russian territory, and the branches thereof, are open to navigation by Russian subjects with Russian vessels. The Russian Government will assist the Mongolian Government in the conservation of these rivers and the improvement of navigation by buoying and lighting, and Russian subjects shall, in accordance with Article 6, be granted areas on river frontages as stopping places for Russian vessels, and can there build wharves and go-downs.

(13) Russian subjects desiring to transport goods and live stock shall have the right to use rivers and roads in Mongolia, and with their own money can build bridges, establish ferries, and collect fees from the people using these bridges and ferries.

(14) Grazing lands in Mongolia shall be reserved for the use of flocks belonging to Russian subjects when migrating, and such lands can be used for three months without payment, after which period charges can be made.

(15) All rights and privileges enjoyed hitherto by Russian subjects along the frontier for hunting, fishing, and the cutting of grass in Mongolia are confirmed.

(16) In regard to the procedure to be followed in connection with business and other agreements between Russian subjects and Mongols and Chinese, it is provided that property transfers must be written and that the contracts must be submitted to Mongolian officials and the Russian Consuls for approval. If a dispute arises in a case it must be submitted to arbitration. If it is still unsettled the case must be sent before a mixed tribunal, which shall be permanent where a Russian Consul is stationed. In other places a temporary tribunal shall be organized by a Russian Consul and the Mongolian Prince in whose territory the defendants reside, each side engaging to execute the findings of the Court, the Russian Consul on Russian subjects and the Mongol Prince on the Mongols or Chinese.

(17) The protocol takes effect from the date of signature.

The protocol is drawn up in Russian and Mongolian in duplicate, and the copies were signed, sealed, and exchanged at Urga on the 24th day of the last month of autumn of the second year of the Mongolian Sovereign, or November 3, 1912.

II. THE MONGOL-TIBETAN TREATY (1913)

The following is a translation[1] of the treaty between Mongolia and Tibet, signed on January 11, 1913:—

Whereas Mongolia and Tibet, having freed themselves from the Mongolian Dynasty and separated themselves from China, have become independent States; and whereas the two States have always professed one and the same religion; and to the end that their ancient mutual friendships may be strengthened;

On the part of the Government of the Sovereign of the Mongolian people Nikta Biliktu da Lama Rabdan, Acting Minister of Foreign Affairs and Assistant Minister General, and Manlai Caatyr Bei-Tzu Damdinsurun; on the part of the Dalai Lama, ruler of Tibet, Gujir tsanshib Kanchen Lubsen-Agwan, donir Agwan Choinzin, Tshichamtso, manager of the bank, and Gendun-Galsan, secretary, have agreed on the following:—

ARTICLE I.—The Dalai Lama, Sovereign of Tibet, approves of and acknowledges the formation of an independent Mongolian State and the proclamation, on the ninth day of the eleventh month of the year of the Swine, of the Master of the Yellow Faith, Je-tsun Dampa Lama, as the Sovereign of the land.

ARTICLE II.—The Sovereign of the Mongolian people, Je-tsun Dampa Lama, approves of and acknowledges the formation of an independent State and the proclamation of the Dalai Lama as Sovereign of Tibet.

ARTICLE III.—The two countries agree to take steps after an exchange of views to establish Buddhism on a firm footing.

ARTICLE IV.—Both States, Mongolia and Tibet, shall henceforth for all time afford each other aid against dangers from without or within.

ARTICLE V.—Each State shall afford protection and assistance to the subjects of the other when travelling within its territory, whether on religious or state affairs.

ARTICLE VI.—Both States, Mongolia and Tibet, shall as formerly carry on mutual trade in the produce of their lands, in goods, cattle, etc., and likewise shall open industrial institutions.

ARTICLE VII.—Henceforth transactions on credit shall be allowed only with the knowledge and permission of official institutions. When no such permission has been granted, no claims will be investigated by the Government institutions. Where agreements on credit have been entered into before the conclusion of the present treaty, in the event of the parties to such agreements being unable to settle matters amicably, the payment of the debts incurred may be enforced by the said institutions in cases where large sums of money are at issue; but in no instance shall the debts be the concern of the *Shabinars*[1] or *Hoshuns*.[1]

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[1] The editors acknowledge their indebtedness to Mr. H. G. C. Perry-Ayscough and Captain R. B. Otter-Barry, whose translation of this treaty in *With the Russians in Mongolia* has enabled them to amplify earlier versions.

ARTICLE VIII.—If it should be found necessary to insert additional articles to this agreement, the Mongolian and Tibetan Governments shall appoint special plenipotentiaries, who shall come to an agreement in accordance with the requirements of the moment.

ARTICLE IX.—This agreement shall come into force on the date of signature, namely, according to Mongolian chronology, on the fourth day of the twelfth moon of the second year of the One placed on the throne by all, and according to Tibetan chronology in the year of the Water mouse, in the same month and on the same day.

III. THE RUSSO-CHINESE AGREEMENT

The following is the authentic text of the Declaration and Notes signed by the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Russian Minister at Peking on November 5, 1913, whereby China recognizes the autonomy of Outer Mongolia, and Russia recognizes Chinese suzerainty, and also recognizes that Outer Mongolia is "part of the territory of China."

DÉCLARATION

Le Gouvernement IMPÉRIAL de Russie ayant formulé les principes qu'il prenait pour base de ses relations avec la Chine concernant la Mongolie Extérieure, et le Gouvernement de la République Chinoise ayant exposé son approbation des dits principes, les deux Gouvernements se sont entendus sur ce qui suit :

I

La Russie reconnait que la Mongolie Extérieure se trouve sous la suzeraineté de la Chine.

II

La Chine reconnait l'autonomie de la Mongolie Extérieure.

III

Reconnaissant le droit exclusif des Mongols de la Mongolie Extérieure eux-mêmes de pourvoir à l'administration intérieure de la Mongolie autonome et de régler toutes les questions d'ordre commercial et industriel touchant à ce pays, la Chine s'engage à ne pas intervenir dans ces matières et par conséquent n'enverra pas en Mongolie Extérieure de troupes, n'y entretiendra aucun fonctionnaire civil ou militaire et s'abstiendra de toute colonisation de ce pays. Il est cependant entendu qu'un dignitaire envoyé par le Gouvernement Chinois pourra résider à Ourga, accompagné du personnel subalterne nécessaire et d'une escorte. En outre, le Gouvernement Chinois pourra, en cas de besoin, entretenir dans certaines

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[1] *Shabinars* are explained as the people who depend from the Court of the Hutukhta and pay taxes to the Court Department. *Hoshuns* are the principalities. The reference is to the custom of the community or clan being responsible for the full payment of a debt incurred by one of its members.

localités de la Mongolie Extérieure à définir au cours des pourparlers prévus à l'article V du présent accord, des agents pour la protection des intérêts de ses sujets. La Russie, de son côté, s'engage à ne pas maintenir de troupes en Mongolie Extérieure à l'exception de gardes consulaires, à n'intervenir dans aucune partie de l'administration de ce pays et à s'abstenir de le coloniser.

IV

La Chine se déclare prête à accepter les bons offices de la Russie pour établir ses relations avec la Mongolie Extérieure conformément aux principes ci-dessus énoncés et aux stipulations du Protocole Commercial Russo-Mongol du 21 Octobre 1912.

V

Les questions qui ont trait aux intérêts de la Russie et de la Chine dans la Mongolie Extérieure et qui sont créées par le nouvel état de choses dans ce pays feront l'objet de pourparlers ultérieurs.

En foi de quoi les soussignés, dûment autorisés à cet effet, ont signé la présente Déclaration et y ont apposé leurs sceaux.

Fait à Pékin, en double exemplaire, le 23 Octobre—5 Novembre mil neuf cent treize, correspondant au cinquième jour du onzième mois de la deuxième année de la République Chinoise.

Signé: B. KRUPENSKY
L. S.

Signé: SUN PAO-CHI
L. S.

* * *

En procédant à la signature de la Déclaration en date de ce jour ayant trait à la Mongolie Extérieure, le soussigné, Envoyé Extraordinaire et Ministre Plénipotentiaire de Sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, dûment autorisé à cet effet, a l'honneur de déclarer, au nom de son Gouvernement, à Son Excellence Monsieur Sun Pao Ki, Ministre des Affaires Etrangères de la République Chinoise, ce qui suit :

1.—La Russie reconnait que le territoire de la Mongolie Extérieure fait partie du territoire de la Chine.

2.—En ce qui concerne les questions d'ordre politique et territorial, le Gouvernement Chinois se mettra d'accord avec le Gouvernement Russe par des négociations auxquelles les autorités de la Mongolie Extérieure prendront part.

3.—Les pourparlers prévus à l'article V de la Déclaration auront lieu entre les trois parties intéressées qui désigneront à cet effet un lieu pour la réunion de leurs délégués.

4.—La Mongolie Extérieure autonome comprendra les régions qui ont été sous la juridiction de l'amban chinois d'Ourga, du général tartare d'Ouliassoutai et de l'amban chinois de Kobdo. Vu qu'il n'existe pas de cartes détaillées de la Mongolie et que les limites des divisions administratives de ce pays sont incertaines, il est convenu que les limites exactes de la Mongolie Extérieure ainsi que la délimitation entre le district de Kobdo et le district de l'Altai feront l'objet des pourparlers ultérieurs prévus à l'article V de la Déclaration.

Le soussigné saisit cette occasion pour renouveler à Son Excellence Monsieur Sun Pao Ki les assurances de sa très haute considération.

Signé: B. KRUPENSKY.

* * *

En procédant à la signature de la Déclaration en date de ce jour ayant trait à la Mongolie Extérieure, le soussigné, Ministre des Affaires Etrangères de la République Chinoise, dûment autorisé à cet effet, a l'honneur de déclarer, au nom de son Gouvernement, à Son Excellence Monsieur Krupensky, Envoyé Extraordinaire et Ministre Plénipotentiaire de Sa Majesté l'Empereur de toutes les Russies, ce qui suit :

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Le soussigné saisit cette occasion pour renouveler à Son Excellence Monsieur Krupensky les assurances de sa très haute considération.

Signé: SUN PAO-CHI.

IV. SINO-RUSSO-MONGOLIAN AGREEMENT

(*Translated from the French*)

The President of the Republic of China, His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all Russias, and His Holiness the Bogdo Jetsun Dampa Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia, animated by a sincere desire to settle by mutual agreement various questions created by a new state of things in Outer Mongolia, have named for that purpose their Plenipotentiary Delegates, that is to say :

The President of the Republic of China, General Pei Kuei-fang and Cheng-Lo, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of China to Mexico ;

His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of all Russias, His Councillor of State Alexandre Miller, Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General in Mongolia ; and His Holiness the Bogdo Jetsun Dampa Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia, Erdeni Djonan Beise Shirnin Damdin, Vice-Chief, of Justice, and Touchetou Tsing Wang Tchakdourjab, Chief of Finance, who having verified their respective full powers found in good and due form, have agreed upon the following :—

ARTICLE I.—Outer Mongolia recognizes the Sino-Russian Declaration and the Notes exchanged between China and Russia of the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913.

ARTICLE II.—Outer Mongolia recognizes China's suzerainty. China and Russia recognize the autonomy of Outer Mongolia forming part of Chinese territory.

ARTICLE III.—Autonomous Mongolia has no right to conclude international treaties with foreign powers respecting political and territorial questions.

As respects questions of a political and territorial nature in Outer Mongolia, the Chinese Government engages to conform to Article II of the Note exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913.

ARTICLE IV.—The title: "Bogdo Jetsun Dampa Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia" is conferred by the President of the Republic of China. The calendar of the Republic as well as the Mongol calendar of cyclical signs are to be used in official documents.

ARTICLE V.—China and Russia, conformably to Articles II and III of the Sino-Russian Declaration of the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913, recognize the exclusive right of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia to attend to all the affairs of its internal administration and to conclude with foreign Powers international treaties and agreements respecting questions of a commercial and industrial nature concerning Autonomous Mongolia.

ARTICLE VI.—Conformably to the same Article III of the Declaration, China and Russia engage not to interfere in the system of autonomous internal administration existing in Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE VII.—The military escort of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga provided for by Article III of the above-mentioned Declaration is not to exceed two hundred men. The military escorts of his Assistants at Uliassutai, at Kobdo, and at Mongolian-Kiakhta are not to exceed fifty men each. If, by agreement with the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia, Assistants of the Chinese Dignitary are appointed in other localities of Outer Mongolia, their military escorts are not to exceed fifty men each.

ARTICLE VIII.—The Imperial Government of Russia is not to send more than one hundred and fifty men as consular guard for its representative at Urga. The military escorts of the Imperial consulates and vice-consulates of Russia, which have already been established or which may be established by agreement with the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia, in other localities of Outer Mongolia, are not to exceed fifty men each.

ARTICLE IX.—On all ceremonial or official occasions the first place of honour is due to the Chinese Dignitary. He has the right, if necessary, to present himself in private audience with His Holiness Bogdo Jetsun Dampa Hutukhtu Khan of Outer Mongolia. The Imperial Representative of Russia enjoys the same right of private audience.

ARTICLE X.—The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the different localities of Outer Mongolia provided for by Article VII of this Agreement are to exercise general control lest the acts of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia and its subordinate authorities may impair the suzerain rights and the interests of China and her subjects in Autonomous Mongolia.

ARTICLE XI.—Conformably to Article IV of the Note exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1915, the territory of Autonomous Outer Mongolia comprises the regions which were under the jurisdiction of the Chinese Amban at Urga, or the Tartar-General at Uliassutai and of the Chinese Amban at Kobdo ; and connects with the boundary of China by the limits of the banners of the four aimaks of Khalkha and of the district of Kobdo, bounded by the district of Hulun-Bouire on the east, by Inner Mongolia on the south, by the Province of Sinkiang on the south-west, and by the districts of Altai on the west.

The formal delimitation between China and Autonomous Mongolia is to be carried out by a special commission of delegates of China, Russia, and Autonomous Outer Mongolia, which shall set itself to the work of delimitation within a period of two years from the date of signature of the present Agreement.

ARTICLE XII.—It is understood that Customs duties are not to be established for goods of whatever origin they may be, imported by Chinese merchants into Autonomous Outer Mongolia. Nevertheless Chinese merchants shall pay all the taxes on internal trade which have been established in Autonomous Outer Mongolia and which may be established therein in the future, payable by the Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. Similarly the merchants of Autonomous Outer Mongolia, when importing any kind of goods of local production into "Inner China," shall pay all the taxes on trade which have been established in "Inner China" and which may be established therein in the future, payable by Chinese merchants. Goods of foreign origin imported from Autonomous Outer Mongolia into "Inner China" shall be subject to the Customs duties stipulated in the Regulations for land trade of the 7th year of the Reign of Kuang-Hsu (1881).

ARTICLE XIII.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Chinese subjects residing in Autonomous Outer Mongolia are to be examined and adjudicated by the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and by his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia.

ARTICLE XIV.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and Chinese subjects residing therein are to be examined and adjudicated conjointly by the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia, or their delegates, and the Mongolian Authorities. If the defendant or accused is a Chinese subject and the claimant or the complainant is a Mongol of the Autonomous Outer Mongolia, the joint examination and decision of the case are to be held at the Chinese Dignitary's place at Urga and at that of his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia ; if the defendant or the accused is a Mongol of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and the claimant or the complainant is a Chinese subject, the case is to be examined and decided in the same manner in the Mongolian yamen. The guilty are to be punished according to their own laws. The interested parties are free to arrange their disputes amicably by means of arbitrators chosen by themselves.

Article XV.—Civil and criminal actions arising between Mongols of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and Russian subjects residing therein are to be examined and decided conformably to the stipulations of Article XVI of the Russo-Mongolian Commercial Protocol of 21st October, 1912.

Article XVI.—All civil and criminal actions arising between Chinese and Russian subjects in Autonomous Outer Mongolia are to be examined and decided in the following manner: in an action wherein the claimant or the complainant is a Russian subject and the defendant or the accused is a Chinese subject, the Russian Consul personally or through his delegate participates in the judicial trial, enjoying the same rights as the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. The Russian Consul or his delegate proceeds to the hearing of the claimant and the Russian witnesses in the court in session, and interrogates the defendant and the Chinese witnesses through the medium of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or of his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia; the Russian Consul or his delegate examines the evidence presented, demands security for "revindication" and has recourse to the opinion of experts, if he considers such expert opinion necesssary for the elucidation of the rights of the parties, etc.; he takes part in deciding and in the drafting of the judgment, which he signs with the Chinese Dignitary at Urga or his delegate or his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia. The execution of the judgment constitutes a duty of the Chinese authorities.

The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia may likewise personally or through their delegates be present at the hearing of an action in the Consulates of Russia wherein the defendant or the accused is a Russian subject and the claimant or the complainant is a Chinese subject. The execution of the judgment constitutes a duty of the Russian authorities.

Article XVII.—Since a section of the Kiachta-Urga-Kalgan telegraph line lies in the territory of Autonomous Outer Mongolia, it is agreed that the said section of the said telegraph line constitutes the complete property of the Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia. The details respecting the establishment on the borders of that country and Inner Mongolia of a station to be administered by Chinese and Mongolian employees for the transmission of telegrams, as well as the questions of the tariff for telegrams transmitted and of the apportionment of the receipts, etc., are to be examined and settled by a special commission of technical delegates of China, Russia and Autonomous Outer Mongolia.

Article XVIII.—The Chinese postal institutions at Urga and Mongolian Kiakhta remain in force on the old basis.

ARTICLE XIX.—The Autonomous Government of Outer Mongolia will place at the disposal of the Chinese Dignitary at Urga and of his Assistants at Uliassutai, Kobdo and Mongolian-Kiakhta as well as of their staff, the necessary houses, which are to constitute the complete property of the Government of the Republic of China. Similarly, necessary grounds in the vicinity of the residences of the said staff are to be granted for their escorts.

ARTICLE XX.—The Chinese Dignitary at Urga and his Assistants in the other localities of Autonomous Outer Mongolia and also their staff are to enjoy the right to use the courier stations of the Autonomous Mongolian Government conformably to the stipulations of Article XI of the Russo-Mongolian Protocol of 21st October, 1912.

ARTICLE XXI.—The stipulations of the Sino-Russian declaration and the Notes exchanged between China and Russia on the 5th day of the 11th month of the 2nd Year of the Republic of China, 23rd October, 1913, as well as those of the Russo-Mongolian Commercial Protocol of the 21st October, 1912, remain in full force.

ARTICLE XXII.—The present Agreement drawn up in triplicate in Chinese, Russian, Mongolian and French languages, comes into force from the day of its signature. Of the four texts which have been duly compared and found to agree, the French text shall be authoritative in the interpretation of the Present Agreement.

Done at Kiakhta the 7th day of the Sixth Month of the Fourth Year of the Republic of China, corresponding to the Twenty-Fifth of May (o.s.), Seventh of June (n.s.), One Thousand Nine Hundred Fifteen.

RANKS OF MONGOLIAN CHIEFTAINS (*Jassaks*)

The ranks of the Mongolian Chieftains are as follows :—

First Class Prince	*Ho Sho Ch'in Wang.*
Second Class Prince	*To Lo Chün Wang.*
Third Class Prince	*To Lo Pei Le.*
Fourth Class Prince	*Ku Shan Pei Tze.*
First Class Duke	*Chen Kuo Kung.*
Second Class Duke	*Fu Kuo Kung.*
First Class Noble (T'umed and Kharach'in Tribes only)	*To Tung Tabunang.*
Second Class Noble ,, ,, ,,	*Tabunang.*
First Class Noble (all other Tribes)	*To Tung Taiji.*
Second Class Noble	*Taiji.*

MONGOLIAN TRIBES AND BANNERS

I. INNER MONGOLIA (*Nei Mêng Ku*) ; 49 Banners.

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
A. CHERIM LEAGUE.				
Korchin . . .	Right Wing, Centre	1st Cl. Prince	Yesi Haishun	1902
,, . . .	Right Wing, Vanguard	(Acting) 1st Cl. Duke	Dakdan Pengsuk†	1912
,, . . .	Left Wing, Vanguard	1st Cl. Prince	Kun-tsuk-su-lung*	1904
,, . . .	Left Wing, Rearguard	1st Cl. Prince	Amurlingkue*	1890
,, . . .	Left Wing, Centre	1st Cl. Prince	Namji Losreng*	1885
,, . . .	Right Wing, Rearguard	4th Cl. Prince	Lash Minchur*	1889
Jalait . . .	One Banner	2nd Cl. Prince	Batma Laptan*	1907
Durbet . . .	One Banner	2nd Cl. Prince	Hsi-tsung-pu-lao-pei-le*	1900
Ghorlos . . .	Vanguard	1st Cl. Duke	Buyen Tsuk	1905
,, . . .	Rearguard	4th Cl. Prince	Chimet Sanpolo*	1897
B. CHOSOTU LEAGUE.				
Kharchin . . .	Right Wing	1st Cl. Prince	Gungsang Norbu*	1898
,, . . .	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Silinga*	1876
,, . . .	Centre	1st Cl. Duke	Janlu Chap*	1891
Tumet . . .	Right Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Gunbu Chap*	1909
,, . . .	Left Wing	1st Cl. Prince	Sering Namjil Wongbao*	1888
C. CHAO UDA LEAGUE.				
Aokhan . . .	Two Banners	1st Cl. Prince	Gunbu Chap*	1880
Naiman . . .	One Banner	1st Cl. Prince	Sujuktu Batur*	1905
Bairin . . .	Right Wing	1st Cl. Prince	Chakerh*	1891
,, . . .	Left Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Sedan Namjil Wongbao*	1903
Jarud . . .	Right Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Dobtsai*	1902
,, . . .	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Lintsin Noyilup*	1870
Aru-Korchin . .	One Banner	1st Cl. Prince	Badsar Jilit*	1868
Onniut . . .	Right Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Wangdut Namchil*	1912
,, . . .	Left Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Tsanbal Norbu*	1868
Keshekten. . .	One Banner	1st Cl. Duke	Bokjiya*	1908
Khalkha . . .	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Lulmu Sering*	1908

* Promoted to this rank for loyalty to the Republic.

† On October 6, 1912, Wu Tai, Chieftain of this banner, 2nd Cl. Prince, was deprived of his rank for his share in the raid upon Taonanfu, and superseded by a Duke of the 1st rank.

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
D. SILINGOL LEAGUE.				
Uchumuchin	Right Wing	1st Cl. Prince	Sonom Rabban	1899
,,	Left Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Gunmu Surun	1906
Huchit	Right Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Sandak Dorje	1884
,,	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Serung Tochil	1902
Sunit	Right Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Demtsuk Donglup	1908
,,	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Maksur Chap	1892
Abaga	Right Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji* (noble)	Tsana Midur	1890
,,	Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Yangsang	1882
Abaganor	Right Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Wangtsin Dundup	1905
,,	Left Wing	4th Cl. Prince	Tsering Dorje	1895
E. ULAN CH'AP LEAGUE.				
Durben Huhet or Ssu Tzu Pulo	One Banner	2nd Cl. Prince	Lowang Norbu	1885
Mao Mingan	One Banner	1st Cl. *Taiji* (noble)	Lasi Sereng Dorje	1888
Orat	Vanguard	1st Cl. Duke	Keshked Logur	1882
,,	Centre	2nd Cl. Duke	Babao Dorje	1895
,,	Rearguard	1st Cl. Duke	Lashamji Dorje	1908
Khalkha	Right Wing	3rd Cl. Prince	Yunduan Wang Tsuk	1890
F. IKH CHAO LEAGUE.*				
Ordos	Right Wing, Vanguard	4th Cl. Prince	Tsakdur Sereng	1884
,,	Right Wing, Vanguard (Last Dzassak)	1st Cl. *Taiji* (noble)	Sakdur Chap	1897
,,	Right Wing, Centre	3rd Cl. Prince	KhaltsengLolmawungTsaltsamus	1902
,,	Right Wing, Rearguard	...	...	...
,,	Left Wing, Vanguard	4th Cl. Prince	Sanji Midbu	1901
,,	Left Wing, Centre	2nd Cl. Prince	Tekus Altan Huyaktu	1902
,,	Left Wing, Rearguard	4th Cl. Prince	Sumu Barbatu	1912

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* To this tribe are also attached two wings of the T'umed under the control of the Tartar-General of Suiyuancheng.

II. OUTER (*Wai Meng*); 150 Banners.

KHALKHAS (86 Banners).

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
TUSHETU KHAN AIMAK	Rearguard Kaitsilaipatu	Han	Dash Nima	1904
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Centre	4th Cl. Prince	Bengchu Khorchlin	1884
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Centre (Secondary)	1st Cl. *Taiji* (noble)	Batmalok Dengchula [nance	1889
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Centre	Brevet Duke (*Taiji*)	Tsakdur Chap (Minister of Fi-	1895
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Centre, Left Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tuandol Dorje	1910
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Centre	2nd Cl. Prince	Tsering Babu	1895
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Centre (Last)	2nd Cl. Duke	Nawang Tsering	1889
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Centre	2nd Cl. Prince	Ananda Wajir	1892
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Left Centre	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Akwang Dorje	1907
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Van	2nd Cl. Duke	Tsedeng Sonom	1859
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Left Centre (Last)	2nd Cl. Duke	Edartokchipyang Wajir	1896
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Right (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Patu Tsakli [tice	1894
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Namsalai (Minister of Jus-	1892
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Left	1st Cl. Prince	Kangda Dorje (Urga Foreign	1892
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Left Wing, Left Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Badarhu [Minister	1896
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Left (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Wangtsuk Labdan	1892
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Right	2nd Cl. Duke	Altan Huyak	1896
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Right (Last)	2nd Cl. Duke	Salaitar	1908
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Right (Last) (Secondary)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Lobsang Haidup	1884
,, ,, .	Rearguard, Right Wing, Rear	1st Cl. Duke	Sotnam Darjiya	1909
TSETSEN KHAN AIMAK	East Guard	Han	Akhwang Nalin	1910
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre, Left	4th Cl. Prince	Gonbu Surun	1899
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre, Left Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Damding Chap	1895
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre, Right	2nd Cl. Prince	Dorje Palmu	1884
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre, Right Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Nawang Shkur	1866
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre, Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Sangsalai Dorje	1898
,, ,, .	East Guard, Rear	2nd Cl. Duke	Tunga Lak	1907
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre (Last)	4th Cl. Prince	Dorje Tselin	1909

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
TSETSEN KHAN AIMAK .	East Guard, Centre (Last) (Secondary)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dash Tsering	1892
,, ,, .	East Guard, Centre (Last), Right	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Lobsang Juidupwahawang Palchidash Tsering	1896
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Centre	1st Cl. Prince	Namjilo Duandubwangdui Dorje	1909
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Left	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Bengchuk Dojit	1908
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Right	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Damtsuk Wangjil	1888
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Van	1st Cl. Duke	Tsering Nima	1892
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dorje Chap	1909
,, ,, .	East Guard, Left Wing, Rear (Last)	Brevet Duke (*Taiji*)	Dorje Yuljitok	1883
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Centre	3rd Cl. Prince	Gunbu Surun (Minister of War)	1908
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Centre (Left)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Lomu	1909
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Centre (Right)	2nd Cl. Duke	Nala Mangdahu	1893
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Centre (Van)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Mishk Dorje	1903
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Left	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dukar Surun	1908
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tselin Gonbu	1883
,, ,, .	East Guard, Right Wing, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dutde	1892
JASAKTU KHAN AIMAK .	West Guard *Erhtinimishitsunglitu*	2nd Cl. Prince	Sotnam Labtan	1898
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Left Wing, Left	Brevet 2nd Cl. Prince	Namkai Tsangshan	1899
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Left Wing, Right	2nd Cl. Duke	Bayen Jirkal	1881
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Left Wing (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsedan Dorje	1904
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Right Wing, Left	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Manib Jarh	1900
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Right Wing (Last)	2nd Cl. Duke	Jaljing Gonbu Dorje	1902
,, ,, .	West Guard, Centre, Right Wing (Last) (Secondary)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Damdan Genbisha	1905
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Centre	1st Cl. Duke	Damdang Surun	1886
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Left	2nd Cl. Duke	Jaljing Gonbu Tsetan	1902
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Right	1st Cl. Duke	Suk Surun	1901
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Van	2nd Cl. Duke	Gonchuk Damba	1909
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Rear	2nd Cl. Duke	Jaljing Dalai Namjil Akwang Dorje	1910
,, ,, .	West Guard, Left Wing, Rear (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Akwang Tsering	1881
,, ,, .	West Guard, Right Wing, Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsering Dorje	1882

Tribe.	Banner.	Rank of Chieftain.	Name of Chieftain.	Date of Succession.
JASAKTU KHAN AIMAK .	West Guard, Right Wing, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Bajar Bani	1891
,, ,, .	West Guard, Right Wing, Rear (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tubdo Dorje	1899
,, ,, .	West Guard, Right Wing, Right	2nd Cl. Duke	Gunbu Surun	1898
,, ,, .	West Guard, Right Wing, Left	2nd Cl. Duke	Pantsar Lakcha	1888

To this League is also attached one banner of the Heite Tribe, under a 1st Cl. *Taiji* (Idaputsideng Surun Chap, 1900).

Tribe.	Banner.	Rank of Chieftain.	Name of Chieftain.	Date of Succession.
SAIN NOIN AIMAK .	Central Guard, Sain-noin	1st Cl. Prince	Namnang Surun (Prime Minister [at Urga)	1896
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Left	3rd Cl. Prince	Tsedeng Sonmu	1896
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Left (Last)	1st Cl. Prince	Nayentu	1874
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Right	2nd Cl. Prince	Kulkmu Chap	1893
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Right (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tobtsin Tsamutsu	1907
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Vanguard	3rd Cl. Prince	Dongdob Tsangchin	1887
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Rearguard	2nd Cl. Duke	Dukar Chap	1894
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre, Rearguard (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	———	1897
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Centre (Last)	1st Cl. Duke	Gangtsar Chap	1867
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Left Wing, Centre	Brevet Duke (*Taiji*)	Urtsin Chap	1870
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Left Wing, Left	2nd Cl. Duke	Purbu Chap	1907
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Left Wing, Left (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Lobsang Haitup	1888
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Left Wing, Right	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Pa-ho-tan (deceased)	...
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Centre, Left	2nd Cl. Duke	Datsin Labtan	1897
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Centre, Right	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Gunchuk Chuijul	1897
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Centre (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsimed Baljing	1894
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Left (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsering Dorje	1887
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing (Last)	2nd Cl. Duke	Dash Dorje	1874
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Vanguard	2nd Cl. Duke	Mahas Mudan (deceased)	...
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Right (Rear)	2nd Cl. Prince	Tsamyang Dorje	1907
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right Wing, Rearguard	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Mengko Wajir	1898
,, ,, ,, . .	Central Guard, Right (Last)	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Barwa Laktsa	1905

Attached to this Tribe are also: The Eleut, Van, under a 4th Cl. Prince (Songduk Dorje, 1907); and another Eleut Banner, under a 4th Cl. Prince (Tsomitlik, 1886).

III. CHINGHAI (*Kokonor*); 29 Banners under the Control of the Chinghai Amban.

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
Hoshut	West, Vanguard	2nd Cl. Prince	Yenkojir Galang	1885
,,	Vanguard, Leader	2nd Cl. Prince	Balchur Labdan	1887
,,	Left Wing, Leader	2nd Cl. Prince	Dongkho Linchin	1903
,,	West, Rearguard	3rd Cl. Prince	Tserin Duandup	1889
,,	North, Left Wing	4th Cl. Prince	Namdeng Tsuigur	1893
,,	North, Right Wing	4th Cl. Prince	Tsuimupeil Norbu	1884
,,	South, Left Wing, Rear	2nd Cl. Duke	Yaobdar	1906
,,	North, Vanguard	2nd Cl. Duke	Sonuom Dash	1905
,,	South, Right Wing, Rear	2nd Cl. Duke	Kunjuk Lasindop	1873
,,	East, Superior	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsebdeng Duandup	1850
,,	North, Left Wing, Last	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Sonuom Singgolamutan	1897
,,	South, Left Wing, Secondary	1st Cl. *Taiji*	,, Duandop	1891
,,	South, Left Wing, Centre	1st Cl. *Taiji*	,, Dorje	1906
,,	South, Left Wing, Last	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tsiamdo Dorje Lohal	1902
,,	West, Left Wing, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Wangdan Dorje	1898
,,	South, Right Wing, Last	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Gonbu Chabu	1894
,,	South, Right Wing, Centre	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tseleng Tarh	1896
,,	West, Right Wing, Centre	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Tubdan Gyamtso	1910
,,	West, Right Wing, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Norbu Dorje	1883
,,	West, Right Wing, Vanguard	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Chimed Lintseng (deceased)	1874
Choros	South, Right Wing, Leader	3rd Cl. Prince	Linchin Wangjil	1897
,,	North, Centre	4th Cl. Prince	Dashi Namjil	1903
Hoit	South	2nd Cl. Duke	Banmawangjal	1905
Khalkha	South, Right Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Labsan Norbu	1883
Torgut	South, Rearguard	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dorui	1903
,,	South, Vanguard	1st Cl. *Taiji*		1906
,,	South, Centre	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Damba	1873
,,	West	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Linchin Nuolo	1906
Chagan Nomen Khanate	One Banner	1st Cl. Prince	Gendundantseng Norbu	...

IV. KOBDO; 19 Banners under the Kobdo Amban.

TRIBE.		BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
Durbet		Dalai Khanate	1st Cl. Prince	Kaltsang Namjil	1870
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Left Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Nachsan Dorje	...
,,		Left Wing, Centre	2nd Cl. Prince	Duk Mulo	1899
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Superior	4th Cl. Prince	Nachuk Dorje	1901
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Left	3rd Cl. Prince	Samdang Jamchui	1906
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Left Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Senggo Dorje	1859
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Right Van	4th Cl. Prince	Peng-tai-chung-nai	1891
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Right Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Dangdar	1895
,,		Right Wing, Centre, Right	1st Cl. Duke	Bakardur	1907
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Van	2nd Cl. Duke	Tumen Bayar	1895
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Rear Centre	2nd Cl. Duke	Tudbu	1895
,,		Left Wing, Centre, Inferior	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Ewajer	1865
,,		Right Wing, Van	1st Cl. Prince	Sotnam Jamtsai	1886
,,		Right Wing, Right Van	3rd Cl. Prince	Tumen Jirgal	1879
Hoit		Left Wing, Inferior, Rear	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Batma	1909
,,		Right Wing, Inferior, Van	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Ayur Tsan	1889
New Torgut	Altai	Right	2nd Cl. Prince	Mishdung Gulup	1884
,, ,,		Left	4th Cl. Prince	Maksur Chap	1891
Hoshut		One Banner	2nd Cl. Duke	Damdeng Tseten	1907

V. ILI; 13 Banners under the Tartar General of Ili.

TRIBE.	BANNER.	RANK OF CHIEFTAIN.	NAME OF CHIEFTAIN.	DATE OF SUCCESSION.
Old Torguts	One Banner	1st Cl. Prince	Buyen Mengku	1891
,, ,,	South, Centre	3rd Cl. Prince	Minchur Dorje *	1899
,, ,,	South, Right Wing	2nd Cl. Duke	Norbu Lintsen	1884
,, ,,	South, Left Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Sildarma	1897
,, ,,	North	1st Cl. Prince	Elolem Chap	1896
,, ,,	North, Left Wing	2nd Cl. Duke	Gonbu Chap	1908
,, ,,	North, Right Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Buyentsuk Tsering	1908
,, ,,	East, Right Wing	1st Cl. Prince	Palta *	1898
,, ,,	East, Left Wing	2nd Cl. Prince	Denchin Ulash *	1896
,, ,,	West	3rd Cl. Prince	Norbu Sanpeile	1902
Hoit	Centre	2nd Cl. Prince	Sangchi Chabu *	1897
Hoshut	Centre, Left Wing	2nd Cl. Duke	Ladna Bodui *	1899
,,	Centre, Right Wing	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Kung-hsi-na-mu-tsa-le	1887
VI. One Banner under the Kansu Tutuh.				
Etsingol Old Torguts	One Banner	3rd Cl. Prince	Dash.	1900
VII. One Banner under the Ninghsia (Kansu) Magistrate.				
Alashan Hoshoit	One Banner	1st Cl. Prince	Dawang Bulkdjal	1910
VIII. One Banner under the Tutuh of Heilungkiang.				
Eleut Ikomingan	One Banner	2nd Cl. Duke	Baljinima *	1905
Under the Tibetan Resident, two Banners of Tangut.				
...	1st Banner	2nd Cl. Duke	Namoji Lotsbtan	1887
...	2nd Banner	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Wongtsing Pengtso	1906
Under the Tartar General of Chahar, three Banners of Hoshut.				
...	1st Banner	2nd Cl. Duke	Lobtsang Sotpas	1903
...	2nd Banner	2nd Cl. Duke	Tsewang Liktsin	1872
...	3rd Banner	1st Cl. *Taiji*	Kongchuk Dorje	1909
Mongolian Prince residing at Peking.				
Choros Tribe	...	3rd Cl. Prince	Tanggus	1879

There are also several unclassified Banners under the Altai Resident.

* Promoted for loyalty to the Republic.

II. CHINESE TURKESTAN OR NEW DOMINION (SINKIANG)

Under Manchu rule the control of Sinkiang was in the hands of the Viceroy of Kansu and Shensi, who was the superior of the Governor. The latter resided at Urumtsi, and under him were the Tartar Generals of Ili and Tarbagatai, and the Taotais of Urumtsi, Ningyuenhsien, Kashgar and Aksu.

Sinkiang has a mixed population, consisting of Turkis, Mongols, Chinese, Manchus, Sarts and Hindus. Mohammedanism is the prevailing religion. As in the case of Mongolia, the local administration is left largely in the hands of native chieftains, who are known as Begs (Po-k'e). The latter are divided into seven classes, of which the first is equivalent to the third rank in the Chinese official scale.

The titles and duties of the principal Begs are as follows :—

Ak'im Beg is the local Governor in general charge of all affairs under his jurisdiction.

Ishkhan Beg (assistant local Governors) co-operate with, and generally assist the *Ak'im Beg*.

Katsanatch'i Beg is the collector of revenue, and in charge of all treasure and taxes received.

Shang Beg is in charge of all grain tax and tribute.

Mituwali Beg is in charge of all matters concerning trade, agriculture, land, houses and deeds therefor.

Ming Beg has control over 1000 men (Mussulmans).
Yütze Beg has control over 100 men "
Olesan Beg has control over 10 men "
Hatsze Beg (Judge) is in charge of judicial affairs.
Mirabu Beg is in charge of all matters concerning irrigation.
Hashi Beg is in charge of repairs to public works, etc.

The number and rank of Begs at each centre are as follows :—

	3rd Class.	4th Class.	5th Class.	6th Class.	7th Class.	Total.
Yangi-Hissar . .	—	1	1	1	6	9
Yarkand . .	1	4	16	27	7	55
Kashgar . .	1	5	8	23	23	60
Khotan . .	1	6	5	6	31	49
Uch Turfan . .	—	1	1	2	8	12
Aksu . . .	1	1	2	6	36	46
Sairim . .	1	1	1	1	2	6
Paicheng . .	—	1	1	1	3	6
Kuldja . . .	1	1	2	1	14	19
Kuche . . .	1	1	2	1	6	11
Kurkura Usu . .	1	1	1	1	6	10
Bakur . . .	1	1	1	1	6	10
Turfan . . .	—	—	3	7	—	10
Ili . . .	1	1	4	10	10	30

Mohammedans of a rank equivalent to that of a 4th Class *Ak'im Beg* or *Ishkhan Beg* could grow queues if they so desired, but officials of lower grades were not permitted to do so.

III. TIBET

Tibet first came under China's control in the latter years of the seventeenth century, and China's power over the country was strengthened by the Emperor Kien Lung a century later. In the later years of the Manchu dynasty, however, China's control over Tibet steadily diminished. In 1888 Tibetan aggressions on the Sikkim border compelled the Indian Government to intervene, and two years later the Anglo-Chinese Agreement (Tibet-Sikkim Convention) was ratified in London. This was followed in 1893 by trade regulations which China undertook to enforce. During the ten years that followed there was no pretence of complying with the terms of the Convention or the trade regulations agreed upon as the result thereof, and the inability of the Chinese Government to bring the Tibetans to reason led to the dispatch of the Younghusband Expedition to Lhasa. Direct relations between India and Tibet were then established by the Lhasa Convention. The latter completely ignored China's suzerainty over the country, and the Chinese Government was not long in putting forward claims to her recognition as suzerain State. Lengthy negotiations followed at Peking and Calcutta, which eventuated in the conclusion of an Anglo-Chinese Convention in 1906. In 1908 this was supplemented by further trade regulations. An arrangement between the British and Russian Governments in 1907 recognized Britain's interests in the maintenance of the *status quo* in Tibet's external relations. The conclusion of the Lhasa Convention in 1904 was followed by the appointment of the late Chao Erh-feng as Warden of the Marches, and between 1905 and 1910 he completely subjugated the tribal territory between the Szechuan frontier and central Tibet. But he was bent on reconquering Tibet, and in the spring of 1910 he succeeded in pushing 1000 men through to Lhasa, under General Chun Ling. The Dalai Lama having fled to India on their approach, the lamas submitted with ill grace to the reintroduction of Chinese control. Chao Erh-feng was a capable administrator, and when he succeeded his brother, Chao Erh-sen, as Viceroy of Szechuan, he lost no opportunity to consolidate Chinese control over Tibet. But during the Revolution of 1911–12 Szechuan was reduced to a condition of anarchy. Chao Erh-feng was murdered, and the systems of administration and transport, which he had so carefully organized, collapsed like a house of cards.

When the news of the Republican successes reached Lhasa, the Chinese garrison mutinied in sympathy with their fellow-countrymen, and indulged in unrestrained excesses at the expense of the inhabitants. The latter rose up in arms, and for a long time the Chinese garrison was besieged in the Tibetan capital. The Dalai Lama, who had been in exile in India since February, 1910, left Kalimpong on June 24 to return to his own country, and was duly installed in authority in Lhasa. Peace between the Chinese and Tibetans was concluded in August, 1912, when it was agreed that all the Chinese troops over and above the ordinary escort of the Amban should march out of Tibet via India, leaving their arms and ammunition behind them at Lhasa, where they were to be sealed by both parties. In the meantime the semi-independent chiefs in Eastern Tibet and in Chinese territory west of the Yalung River had successfully challenged Chinese authority in these regions, and caused the hasty withdrawal of the garrisons that had been in occupation since 1910. The work of recovering the lost ground was entrusted to two forces raised by the Military Governors of Szechuan and Yunnan. The Szechuanese army left Chengtu in July, and the Yunnan force, converging from the south, was directed upon Hsiangchen. Both the latter town and Litang were occupied by the Chinese, but at this point the action of Great Britain led to the withdrawal of the expedition.

While the Tibetan Marches formed the immediate objective of the Chinese troops, there was reason to suppose that after the restoration of Chinese authority along the border the expedition would continue its march to Lhasa. Accordingly on August 17th the British Minister in Peking presented a Memorandum to the Chinese Government defining the attitude of Great Britain towards the Tibetan question. China was asked to refrain from dispatching a military expedition into Tibet, as the re-establishment of Chinese authority would constitute a violation of the Anglo-Chinese Treaty of 1906. Chinese suzerainty in regard to Tibet was recognized, but Great Britain could not consent to the assertion of Chinese sovereignty over a State enjoying independent treaty relations with her. In conclusion, China was invited to come to an agreement regarding Tibet on the lines indicated in the Memorandum, such agreement to be antecedent to Great Britain's recognition of the Republic.

The reply to this communication was withheld until December 23rd, but in the middle of September the expedition to Tibet received orders to retrace its steps, on the ground that peace had been restored. In December, however, the Chinese forces were still engaged in dealing, without much success, with the revolt of the Tibetans of the Marches. In its reply the Chinese Government began by citing Article II of the Anglo-Chinese Tibetan Agreement of 1906, in which "Great Britain engages not to annex Tibetan territory, nor to interfere in the administration of Tibet," China undertaking "not to permit any other foreign State to interfere in the territory or internal administration of Tibet." It also cited the Tibetan trade regulations of 1906, requiring China to police the trade marts and protect lines of communication. After this preamble, the reply declared that the Chinese Government had no intention of converting Tibet into another province of China. Her Tibetan policy was governed by the Provisional Constitution of the Republic, the Abdication Edict, the President's inauguration oath, and the restoration of the Dalai Lama to his former titles and honours. The reply insisted that the "union of the five races into one family," mentioned in the Provisional Constitution, was wholly different from converting Tibet into a province of China, and asserted that the preservation of the traditional system of Tibetan government was as much the desire of China as of Great Britain. The Chinese Government maintained that the right of dispatching troops into Tibet was necessary for the fulfilment of the responsibilities attaching to China's treaty obligations with Great Britain, which required her to preserve peace and order throughout that vast territory. China, the reply added, never contemplated the idea of stationing an unlimited number of soldiers in Tibet.

Regarding the British request that China should negotiate a new treaty, China considered that the present treaties signed by the late dynasty defined Tibet's status with sufficient clearness, and therefore considered there was no need to negotiate a new treaty. The Government expressed regret that the India Government should close all communications between China and Tibet via India, especially in view of the friendly relations between Great Britain and China, such an act being rarely resorted to except by nations at war. It hoped that Great Britain would reconsider this attitude. Finally, the Government regretted that Great Britain should threaten to refuse recognition of the Republic, and on its side asked Great Britain to give her recognition to the new Republic, such recognition being of mutual advantage to both countries.

1913

When the year opened the Chinese had been completely driven out of Tibet, and on January 11, 1913, Tibet declared its independence by concluding a treaty with the Hutukhta of Urga, the ruler of Outer Mongolia. But Tutuh Yuin of Szechuan had proclaimed the creation of the province of Western Kham and resolved to make an attempt to justify the statement. As soon as the weather permitted the troops to leave their winter quarters, operations against the Tibetans were begun, the main struggle centring on Hsiangchen, the fortified Lamasery of Sanpeiling. Meanwhile, President Yuan Shih-kai sent a special delegate to Chiamdo to meet representatives of the Dalai Lama in order to discuss terms of peace and the definite demarcation of the frontier.

In May the British Government repeated its suggestion of the previous year that China should come to an agreement on the Tibetan question, and ultimately a Tripartite Conference was opened on October 13 at Simla. Lieut.-Col. Sir A. H. McMahon presided, and the other members of the Conference were Mr. Ivan Chen (China) and Long Chen Shatra (Tibetan Prime Minister).

1914

Although no official pronouncement was made on the subject it was understood that an agreement was reached which provided for (1) the complete autonomy of Tibet Proper, (2) the right of China to maintain a Resident at Lhasa with a suitable guard, and (3) a semi-autonomous zone in Eastern Tibet in which China would occupy a stronger position. The conferences, however, failed to find an acceptable demarkation of Outer and Inner Tibet, and broke up in July, 1914, without arranging for the ratification of the agreement.

1915–1919

The next three years passed more or less without incident. In July, 1917, two Tibetans were arrested by Chinese troops in the Chamdo district. The Kalong Lama applied for their release, and asked to have the matter settled by negotiation. His request was refused, and the arrested men were ordered to be taken to Chamdo. Thereupon fighting broke out, and the Chinese eventually found themselves hard pressed by the Tibetans. By February, 1918, General Peng Tso-sheng was surrounded at Chamdo, and a few months later the country east of Chamdo as far as the right bank of the Yangtze was overrun by the Tibetans, who were now in possession of a third of the Marches. Chamdo surrendered in April; Draza and Derge were also captured. Overtures with a view to entering upon peace negotiations were first made by the Chinese military authorities in February, 1918, and were repeated in March and April. They were unsuccessful, however, and the Chinese continued to lose ground. In July, 1911, at the instance of the British Vice-Consul, Mr. Eric Teichman, an armistice between the belligerents was arranged for one month. A peace conference was subsequently opened at Chamdo under the auspices of Mr. Teichman, the Chinese being represented by Lu Tsan-ting and the Tibetans by the Kalong Lama, and an agreement was reached by which hostilities were to be suspended for a year, the Tibetans retiring within the boundary of Derge and the Chinese to Kantze.

AGREEMENTS CONCERNING TIBET

Signed at Peking, April 27th, 1906

TO WHICH IS ANNEXED THE CONVENTION BETWEEN THE UNITED KINGDOM AND TIBET, SIGNED AT LHASA, SEPTEMBER 7TH, 1904

Ratifications exchanged at London, July 23rd, 1906

Whereas His Majesty the King of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India, and His Majesty the Emperor of China are sincerely desirous to maintain and perpetuate the relations of friendship and good understanding which now exist between their respective Empires;

And whereas the refusal of Tibet to recognize the validity of or to carry into full effect the provisions of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of March 17th, 1890, and Regulations of December 5th, 1893, placed the British Government under the necessity of taking steps to secure their rights and interests under the said Convention and Regulations;

And whereas a Convention of ten articles was signed at Lhasa on September 7th, 1904, on behalf of Great Britain and Tibet, and was ratified by the Viceroy and Governor-General of India on behalf of Great Britain on November 11th, 1904, a declaration on behalf of Great Britain modifying its terms under certain conditions being appended thereto;

His Britannic Majesty and His Majesty the Emperor of China have resolved to conclude a Convention on this subject, and have for this purpose named Plenipotentiaries, that is to say:—

His Majesty the King of Great Britain and Ireland:

Sir Ernest Mason Satow, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Distinguished Order of Saint Michael and Saint George, His said Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to His Majesty the Emperor of China; and His Majesty the Emperor of China:

His Excellency Tang Shao-yi, His said Majesty's High Commissioner Plenipotentiary and a Vice-President of the Board of Foreign Affairs;

Who having communicated to each other their respective full powers and finding them to be in good and true form, have agreed upon and concluded the following Convention in six articles:—

ARTICLE I.—The Convention concluded on September 7th, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet, the texts of which in English and Chinese are attached to the present Convention as an annex, is hereby confirmed, subject to the modification stated in the declaration appended thereto, and both of the High Contracting Parties engage to take at all times such steps as may be necessary to secure the due fulfilment of the terms specified therein.

ARTICLE II.—The Government of Great Britain engages not to annex Tibetan territory or to interfere in the administration of Tibet. The Government of China also undertakes not to permit any other foreign State to interfere with the territory or internal administration of Tibet.

ARTICLE III.—The concessions which are mentioned in Article IX (*d*) of the Convention concluded on September 7th, 1904, by Great Britain and Tibet are denied to any State or to the subject of any State other than China, but it has been arranged with China that at the trade marts specified in Article II of the aforesaid Convention Great Britain shall be entitled to lay down telegraph lines connecting with India.

ARTICLE IV.—The provisions of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890 and Regulations of 1893 shall, subject to the terms of this present Convention and annexe thereto, remain in full force.

ARTICLE V.—The English and Chinese texts of the present Convention have been carefully compared and found to correspond, but in the event of there being any difference of meaning between them the English text shall be authoritative.

ARTICLE VI.—This Convention shall be ratified by the Sovereigns of both countries, and ratifications shall be exchanged in London within three months after the date of signature by the Plenipotentiaries of both Powers.

In token whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed and sealed this Convention, four copies in English and four in Chinese.

Done at Peking this twenty-seventh day of April, one thousand nine hundred and six, being the fourth day of the fourth month of the thirty-second year of the reign of Kuang Hsü.

(L.S.) ERNEST SATOW.
(Signature and Seal of the Chinese
Plenipotentiary.)

SIGNED AT LHASA, 7TH SEPTEMBER, 1904

Whereas doubts and difficulties have arisen as to the meaning and validity of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890, and the Trade Regulations of 1893, and as to the liabilities of the Tibetan Government under these agreements; and whereas recent occurrences have tended towards a disturbance of the relations of friendship and good understanding which have existed between the British Government and the Government of Tibet; and whereas it is desirable to restore peace and amicable relations and to resolve and determine the doubts and difficulties as aforesaid, the said Governments have resolved to conclude a Convention with these objects, and the following articles have been agreed upon by Colonel F. E. Younghusband, C.I.E., in virtue of full powers vested in him by His Britannic Majesty's Government and on behalf of that said Government, and Lo-Sang Gyal-Tsen, the Ga-den Ti-Rimpoche, and the representatives of the Council of the three monasteries Se-ra, Dre-pung, and Ga-den, and of the ecclesiastical and lay officials of the National Assembly on behalf of the Government of Tibet:—

I.—The Government of Tibet engages to respect the Anglo-Chinese Convention of 1890 and to recognize the frontier between Sikkim and Tibet, as defined in Article I of the said Convention, and to erect boundary pillars accordingly.

II.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to open forthwith trade marts to which all British and Tibetan subjects shall have free right of access at Gyangtse and Gartok, as well as at Yatung.

The Regulations applicable to the trade mart at Yatung, under the Anglo-Chinese Agreement of 1893, shall, subject to such amendments as may hereafter be agreed upon by common consent between the British and Tibetan Governments, apply to the marts above mentioned.

In addition to establishing trade marts at the places mentioned, the Tibetan Government undertakes to place no restrictions on the trade by existing routes, and to consider the question of establishing fresh trade marts under similar conditions if development of trade requires it.

III.—The question of the amendment of the Regulations of 1893 is reserved for separate consideration, and the Tibetan Government undertakes to appoint fully authorized delegates to negotiate with representatives of the British Government as to the details of the amendments required.

IV.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to levy no dues of any kind other than those provided for in the tariff to be mutually agreed upon.

V.—The Tibetan Government undertakes to keep the roads to Gyangtse and Gartok from the frontier clear of all obstruction and in a state of repair suited to the needs of the trade, and to establish at Yatung, Gyangtse, and Gartok, and at each of the other trade marts that may hereafter be established, a Tibetan Agent who shall receive from the British Agent appointed to watch over British trade at the marts in question any letter which the latter may desire to send to the Tibetan or to the Chinese authorities. The Tibetan Agent shall also be responsible for the due delivery of such communications and for the transmission of replies.

VI.—As an indemnity to the British Government for the expense incurred in the dispatch of armed troops to Lhasa, to exact reparation for breaches of treaty obligations, and for the insults offered to and attacks upon the British Commissioner and his following and escort, the Tibetan Government engages to pay a sum of Pounds five hundred thousand, equivalent to Rupees seventy-five lakhs, to the British Government.

The indemnity shall be payable at such place as the British Government may from time to time, after due notice, indicate, whether in Tibet or in the British districts of Darjeeling or Jalpaiguri, in seventy-five annual instalments of Rupees one lakh each on the 1st January in each year, beginning from the 1st January, 1906.

VII.—As security for the payment of the above-mentioned indemnity, and for the fulfilment of the provisions relative to trade marts specified in Articles II, III, IV, V, the British Government shall continue to occupy the Chumbi Valley until the indemnity has been paid and until the trade marts have been effectively opened for three years, whichever date may be the later.

VIII.—The Tibetan Government agrees to raze all forts and fortifications and remove all armaments which might impede the course of free communications between the British frontier and the towns of Gyangtse and Lhasa.

IX.—The Government of Tibet engages that, without the previous consent of the British Government—

(*a*) No portion of Tibetan territory shall be ceded, sold, leased, mortgaged, or otherwise given for occupation, to any foreign Power;

(*b*) No such Power shall be permitted to intervene in Tibetan affairs;

(*c*) No representatives or agents of any foreign Power shall be admitted to Tibet;

(*d*) No concessions for railways, roads, telegraphs, mining, or other rights, shall be granted to any foreign Power, or the subject of any foreign Power. In the event of consent to such concessions being granted, similar or equivalent concessions shall be granted to the British Government;

(*e*) No Tibetan revenues, whether in kind or in cash, shall be pledged or assigned to any foreign Power, or the subject of any foreign Power.

X.—In witness whereof the negotiators have signed the same, and affixed thereunto the seals of their arms.

Done in quintuplicate at Lhasa, this 7th day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand nine hundred and four, corresponding with the Tibetan date, the 27th day of the seventh month of the Wood Dragon year.

ARRANGEMENT BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND RUSSIA CONCERNING TIBET

The Governments of Britain and Russia recognizing the suzerain rights of China in Tibet, and considering the fact that Great Britain, by reason of her geographical position, has a special interest in the maintenance of the *status quo* in the external relations of Tibet, have made the following Arrangement:—

I.—The two High Contracting Parties engage to respect the territorial integrity of Tibet and to abstain from all interference in its internal administration.

II.—In conformity with the admitted principle of the suzerainty of China over Tibet, Great Britain and Russia engage not to enter into negotiations with Tibet except through the intermediary of the Chinese Government. This engagement does not exclude the direct relations between British Commercial Agents and the Tibetan authorities provided for in Article V of the Convention between Great Britain and Tibet of September 7th, 1904, and confirmed by the Convention between Great Britain and China of April 27th, 1906; nor does it modify the engagements entered into by Great Britain and China in Article I of the said Convention of 1906.

It is clearly understood that Buddhists, subjects of Great Britain or of Russia, may enter into direct relations on strictly religious matters with the Dalai Lama and the other representatives of Buddhism in Tibet; the Governments of Great Britain and Russia engage, as far as they are concerned, not to allow those relations to infringe the stipulations of the present arrangement.

III.—The British and Russian Governments respectively engage not to send representatives to Lhasa.

IV.—The two High Contracting Parties engage neither to seek nor to obtain, whether for themselves or their subjects, any concessions for railways, roads, telegraphs, and mines, or other rights in Tibet.

V.—The two Governments agree that no part of the revenue of Tibet, whether in kind or in cash, shall be pledged or assigned to Great Britain or Russia or to any of their subjects.

ANNEX

Great Britain reaffirms the Declaration, signed by His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General of India and appended to the ratification of the Convention of September 7th, 1904, to the effect that the occupation of the Chumbi Valley by British forces shall cease after the payment of three annual instalments of the indemnity of 7,500,000 Rupees, provided that the trade marts mentioned in Article II of that Convention have been effectively opened for three years, and that in the meantime the Tibetan authorities have faithfully complied in all respects with the terms of the said Convention of 1904. It is clearly understood that if the occupation of the Chumbi Valley by the British forces has, for any reason, not been terminated at the time anticipated in the above Declaration, the British and Russian Governments will enter upon a friendly exchange of views on this subject.

The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburg as soon as possible.

In witness whereof the respective Plenipotentiaries have signed the present Convention and affixed thereto their seals.

Done in duplicate at St. Petersburg, the 18th (31st) August, 1907.

(L.S.) A. NICOLSON.
(L.S.) ISWOLSKY.

St. Petersburg, August 18*th* (31*st*), 1907

M. le Ministre,—With reference to the Arrangement regarding Tibet, signed to-day, I have the honour to make the following Declaration to your Excellency:—

"His Britannic Majesty's Government think it desirable, so far as they are concerned, not to allow, unless by a previous agreement with the Russian Government for a period of three years from the date of the present communication, the entry into Tibet of any scientific mission whatever, on condition that a like assurance is given on the part of the Imperial Russian Government.

"His Britannic Majesty's Government propose, moreover, to approach the Chinese Government with a view to induce them to accept a similar obligation for a corresponding period; the Russian Government will, as a matter of course, take similar action.

"At the expiration of the term of three years above mentioned His Britannic Majesty's Government will, if necessary, consult with the Russian Government as to the desirability of any ulterior measures with regard to scientific expeditions to Tibet."

I avail, etc.,
A. NICOLSON.

St. Petersburg, August 18*th* (31*st*), 1907.

M. l'Ambassadeur,—In reply to your Excellency's note of even date, I have the honour to declare that the Imperial Russian Government think it desirable, so far as they are concerned, not to allow, unless by a previous agreement with the British Government, for a period of three years from the date of the present communication, the entry into Tibet of any scientific mission whatever.

Like the British Government, the Imperial Government propose to approach the Chinese Government with a view to induce them to accept a similar obligation for a corresponding period.

It is understood that at the expiration of the term of three years the two Governments will, if necessary, consult with each other as to the desirability of any ulterior measures with regard to scientific expeditions to Tibet.

I have, etc.,

ISWOLSKY.

THE TIBET-SIKKIM CONVENTION, 1890

Ratified in London, 17*th August*, 1890

ARTICLE I.—The boundary of Sikkim and Tibet shall be the crest of the mountain range separating the waters flowing into the Sikkim Teesta and its affluents from the waters flowing into the Tibetan Machu and northwards into other rivers of Tibet. The line commences at Mount Gipmochi on the Bhutan frontier, and follows the above-mentioned water-parting to the point where it meets Nepaul territory.

ARTICLE II.—It is admitted that the British Government, whose protectorate over the Sikkim State is hereby recognized, has direct and exclusive control over the internal administration and foreign relations of that State, and except through and with the permission of the British Government neither the ruler of the State nor any of its officers shall have official relations of any kind, formal or informal, with any other country.

ARTICLE III.—The Government of Great Britain and Ireland and the Government of China engage reciprocally to respect the boundary as defined in Article I and to prevent acts of aggression from their respective sides of the frontier.

ARTICLE IV.—The question of providing increased facilities for trade across the Sikkim-Tibet frontier will hereafter be discussed with a view to a mutually satisfactory arrangement by the high contracting powers.

ARTICLE V.—The question of pasturage on the Sikkim side of the frontier is reserved for further examination and future adjustment.

ARTICLE VI.—The high contracting powers reserve for discussion and arrangement the method in which official communications between the British authorities in India and the authorities in Tibet shall be conducted.

ARTICLE VII.—Two joint Commissioners shall within six months from the ratification of this Convention be appointed, one by the British Government in India, the other by the Chinese Resident in Tibet. The said Commissioners shall meet and discuss the questions which by the last three preceding articles have been reserved.

ARTICLE VIII.—The present Convention shall be ratified, and the ratifications shall be exchanged in London, as soon as possible after the signature thereof.

CHAPTER XXVI

FOREIGNERS IN CHINA

I

THE number of foreigners resident in China is given in the Returns for 1917 of the Maritime Customs as 220,485, distributed as follows :—

	Firms.	Persons.
American	216	5,618
Austrian	18	317
Belgian	18	324
British	655	8,479
Danish	17	450
Dutch	22	298
French	127	2,262[1]
German	132	2,899
Hungarian	—	18
Italian	42	416
Japanese	2,818	144,492
Norwegian	7	277
Portuguese	51	2,297
Russian	2,914	51,310
Spanish	8	300
Swedish	3	513
Non-Treaty Powers	7	215
Total	7,055	220,485

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[1] Including 714 *protégés.*

Foreign Residence in Peking

Peking is not an open port or place of trade, and foreigners other than members of the Diplomatic Body, the Customs Service, Missions, and teachers in schools and colleges cannot, therefore, base their right to reside outside the Legation area in the capital upon any treaty stipulation. By Article X of the Japanese Commercial Treaty with China, signed at Shanghai in October, 1903, the Chinese Government undertook to open of its own accord a place of international residence and trade in Peking "in case of and after the complete withdrawal of foreign troops stationed in the province of Chihli and of the Legation Guards." As foreign garrisons are still maintained in Peking and in North China by all the Powers, this condition has not yet come into force. The residence of foreigners other than the classes enumerated above has been tolerated by the Chinese authorities under certain conditions, as the result of a compromise with the Foreign Legations. The question of setting apart a quarter for foreign residences and places of business was being considered by the Chinese Government towards the end of 1912. Until some such arrangement has been agreed upon, the leasing of houses to foreigners in Peking is governed by the following regulations (which appeared in the *Peking Daily News* in August, 1912):—

Rules on the Renting of Houses by Foreigners in Peking.

I.—Foreigners desirous of renting houses in Peking should have the following qualifications:—

(*a*) In the employment of some Chinese official Yamen.
(*b*) In the employment of some Chinese school as a teacher or of some factory as an engineer.
(*c*) As a preacher or a medical doctor of some Mission.
(*d*) As an attaché of some Legation.

II.—Foreigners who come to China as tourists or as correspondents of newspapers, upon presenting a certificate issued by their Legation, will be allowed to rent houses in Peking. Those from countries that have no treaties with China should present their passports for examination.

III.—Foreigners, though able to meet the requirements of Article II, and yet subject to one of the following disqualifications, are forbidden to rent any houses:—

(*a*) Runaway criminals from abroad;
(*b*) Those who are habitually dishonest;
(*c*) Those who have no definite occupation;
(*d*) Those whose conduct disturbs the peace of the community;
(*e*) Those whose nationality has not been identified;
(*f*) Those suffering from contagious diseases, etc.

IV.—Whenever houses are to be rented to foreigners, the landlord should in the first instance ask for his nationality, full name, age, occupation, the number of members in his family, and also how the building is to be used. When a contract has been made by the two parties, the landlord should submit it to the Central Police Office direct or through one of its branch offices for approval in writing.

V.—The contents of the contract should contain the following articles:—

(*a*) Nationality, name in full, and occupation of the tenant, and names, occupations and addresses of the landlord and the guarantors.

(*b*) Site and number of the building, the number of rooms and additional parts of the building. (If it is an open ground, state its dimensions.)
(*c*) The rental, the premium, and the mode of payment of rent.
(*d*) The term of the tenancy. (It should not exceed three years.)
(*e*) The house should be used for living quarters only, and not business or other purposes.
(*f*) The house should be occupied by the original tenants and not be sub-let to others.
(*g*) Within the period of the contract, the tenant should not curtail the term of rent nor the landlord increase rent at will. The tenant should not be in arrear with his rent.
(*h*) Any other terms agreed upon by the parties concerned.

VI.—The articles enumerated above should be carefully noted and put down, and which the tenant, the landlord, and the guarantor or guarantors should sign, and no article should be left out.

VII.—In addition to the copy of the contract to be kept at the Central Police Office for reference, the tenant and the landlord should also each have a copy.

VIII.—If, after the Central Police Office has given its approval, any alterations and changes are found in the contract, the original copy will *ipso facto* become null and void. And if the offence be of a serious nature, one month's rent will be taken away as fine.

IX.—If, within the term of the contract, the tenant should violate any of the clauses in the contract or be disqualified within the meaning of Article III, the landlord shall be at liberty to terminate the period of the contract. If the landlord should commit a breach of the contract, the tenant has the right to charge him at the Central Police Office or any of its branch offices.

X.—If, within the period of the contract, the landlord should mortgage or sell the house or propose to use it in some way, notice should be given three months in advance, so that the tenant would have time to prepare to move. If, within the period, the tenant should return to his own country or move elsewhere, notice should be given the landlord one month in advance.

XI.—At the expiration of the contract, if the tenant desires to continue to rent the house, he should give due notice one month in advance, and in accordance with the clauses of Article V to make a new contract which should be submitted to the Central Police Office or any of its branch offices for approval.

XII.—At the expiration of the contract, if the tenant does not desire to continue the same, and proposes to move elsewhere, he should notify the landlord and declare the contract null and void. Due notice should be given the Central Police Office or any of its branches to the same effect.

XIII.—If, in accordance with the wishes of the landlord, no time has been previously arranged and fixed in the contract, the tenant should raise no objection whenever he be asked to move.

XIV.—If houses are rented to foreigners without the approval of the Central Police Office, the landlord will be punished according to the gravity of the offence by the imposition of a fine of one or two months' rent.

XV.—If Chinese dishonestly and falsely use their own names to rent houses for foreigners, they, when detected, will be punished by paying a fine of two or three months' rent.

[N.B.—In Articles XIV and XV, in addition to the fine, the rent should also be refunded.]

XVI.—In case the tenant desires to make some changes in the house, he should first consult the landlord, who will in turn report the same to the Central Police Office before the work commences. In any case, the tenant should not start any change by himself at all.

International Settlement, Shanghai

The foreign population of the International Settlement at Shanghai, (exclusive of the French settlement and outside roads under French control) according to the census of October 16, 1915, was 18,519, the numbers of the respective nationalities being :—

Japanese	7,169	Dutch	55
British	4,822	Persian	39
Portuguese	1,323	Greek	41
American	1,307	Belgian	18
German	1,155	Rumanian	16
French	244	Brazilian	5
Russian	361	Indian	1,009
Spanish	181	Egyptian	8
Italian	114	Korean	20
Danish	145	Armenian	5
Austro-Hungarian	123	Montenegrin	2
Norwegian	82	Bulgarian	2
Turkish	108	Sundry	13
Swedish	73		
Swiss	79	Total	18,519

The foreign population of Tientsin in 1913 was returned at 3945, and included 2175 Japanese, 634 British, 405 Germans, 149 French, 145 Americans, and 140 Russians.

The British Diplomatic and Consular Service

His Majesty's Legation in Peking :—

The Rt. Hon. Sir John Newell Jordan, G.C.I.E., K.C.B., K.C.M.G.	Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.
Beilby Alston	Acting Councillor of Legation.
M. Lampson, M.V.O.	Acting First Secretary.
Commander I. A. S. Hutton, R.N.	Naval Attaché.
Lt.-Col. D. S. Robertson	Military Attaché.
Capt. R. B. Denny	Asst. Military Attaché.
W. P. Ker, C.M.G.	Commercial Attaché.
Sidney Barton, C.M.G.	Chinese Secretary.
Sir Sidney Head, Bart	Second Secretary.
E. G. Wilton, C.M.G.	Opium Commissioner.
C. A. W. Rose, C.I.E.	Asst. Commercial Attaché.
H. I. Harding	Asst. Chinese Secretary.
G. C. Douglas Gray, M.D.	Physician.
A. H. George, G. S. Moss	Assistants.
J. W. O. Davidson, D. B. Walker, E. W. Mead, H. I. Prideaux-Brune, F. A. Wallis, E. S. Bennett, C. E. Whitamore, A. A. L. Tuson, K. W. Tribe, C. R. Lee, J. C. Hutchinson, W. A. Alexander	Student Interpreters.
Rt. Rev. F. L. Norris, D.D.	Chaplain.

The following are the members of His Majesty's Consular Service in China (1918):—

PORT.	RANK.*	NAME.	DATE OF APPOINTMENT.
Amoy	Consul	Little, H. A.	—
,,	Pro-Consul	Turner, W. P. W.	—
Canton	Consul-General	Jamieson, J. W., C.M.G.	Jan. 21, 1909
,,	Vice-Consul	Jamieson, E. G.	—
Changsha	Consul	Tours, B. G., C.M.G.	Dec. 1, 1910
Chefoo	Consul	King, H. F.	—
Chengtu	Consul-General	Wilton, E. C. C., C.M.G.	—
Chungking	Pro-Consul	Toller, W. S.	—
Chinkiang	Acting Consul	Savage, V. L. (Acting)	—
Dairen	Consul	Parlett, H. G. (Acting)	—
Foochow	Consul	Wilkinson, F. E., C.M.G.	Sept. 1, 1908
Pagoda Island	Consular Agent	Myers, Dr. W. W.	Sept. 6, 1909
Hangchow	Consul	Bristow, H. H. (Acting)	—
Ningpo	Acting Consul	Pratt, R. S.	—
Hankow	Consul-General	—	Oct. 1, 1912
,,	Vice-Consul	Brett, W. R.	July 1, 1915
Harbin	Consul	Sly, H. E., C.M.G.	Oct. 1, 1912
,,	Vice-Consul	Hill, J. C.	—
Ichang	Consul	Smith, J. L.	—
Kashgar	Consul-General	Etherton, Major P. T.	—
,,	Vice-Consul	Fitzmaurice, N.	—
Kiukiang	Consul	Kirk, C. C. A. (Acting)	—
,,	Vice-Consul	Smith, C. D.	—
Kiungchow and Pakhoi	Consul	Fletcher, W. J. B.	—
Mukden	Consul-General	O'Brien-Butler, P. E.	Oct. 1, 1912
Nanking	Consul	Giles, B., C.M.G..	—
Newchwang	Consul	Clennell, W. J.	—
Peking	Vice-Consul	Turner, W. P. W.	—
,,	Pro-Consul	Ogden, A. G. N.	—
Shanghai	Judge of Supreme Court for China	de Sausmarez, Sir H. W.	Apr. 1, 1905
,,	Consul-General and Registrar of Shipping	Fraser, Sir Everard, K.C.M.G.	Jan. 20, 1911
,,	Assistant Judge	Skinner Turner	—
,,	Crown Advocate	Wilkinson, H. P.	Dec. 10, 1897
,,	Consul	H. Phillips	—
,,	Registrar and Police Magistrate.	King, G. W.	Nov. 30, 1907
,,	Chief Clerk of Court	Robinson, F. A.	—
,,	Vice-Consul	Brett, H. J.	—
,,	Vice-Consul	Buckmaster, Major, H. S. G.	—

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* Abbreviations subsequently used:—C.-G., Consul-General; C., Consul; V.-C., Vice-Consul; C.A., Consular Agent.

MEMBERS OF HIS MAJESTY'S CONSULAR SERVICE IN CHINA—*continued*

PORT.	RANK.*	NAME.	DATE OF APPOINTMENT.
Shanghai. .	Assessor in Mixed Court	Garstin, C. F. . .	—
,, . .	Assistant Assessor in Mixed Court	Grant Jones, P. . .	—
,, . .	Vice-Consul .	Blackburn, A. D. .	—
Swatow . .	Consul . . .	Pitzipios, G. D. . .	Jan. 20, 1911
Têngyüeh .	Consul . . .	Eastes, A. E. . .	May 25, 1911
Tientsin . .	Consul-General .	Goffe, H. C.M.G. . .	Oct. 1, 1912
,, . .	Vice-Consul . .	Handley-Derry, H. F.	—
,, . .	Pro-Consul . .	Walker, D. B. . .	—
Tsinan . .	Consul . . .	Pratt, J. T.	—
Wuchow . .	Consul . . .	Smith, S. Wyatt . .	—
Wuhu . .	Consul . . .	Kirke, C. C. A. . .	—
Yunnan-fu .	Consul-General .	Ottewill, H. A. . .	Oct. 1, 1912

1st Class Assistants:—

Major, A. G.; Affleck, J. B.; Moss, G. S.; Brenan, J. F.

2nd Class Assistants:—

Blunt, A. P.; King, L. M.; Bryne, O. P.; Blackburn, A. B.; George, A. H.

British Marriage Officers in China

By an order dated November 23, 1910, for the purposes of section 11 (1) of the "Foreign Marriage Act, 1892," and of Articles 19 and 162 of the China and Korea Order in Council, 1904, the districts specified in the following table have been assigned by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs to His Majesty's Consular officers in China:—

Post.	Rank.	District.
Mukden . .	Consul-General.	The Province of Shengking (except the Prefecture of Chinchou and that portion of the Prefecture of Fêng-t'ien south of the northern boundary of the district of Haich'êng); in the Province of Kirin the Prefecture of Chilin, Hunch'un, and those portions of the Prefecture of Ch'angch'un and the sub-Prefecture of Pinchou lying south of latitude 44°.
Newchwang .	Consul . .	In the Province of Shengking, the Prefecture of Chinchou and that portion of the Prefecture of Fêng-t'ien south of the northern boundary of the district of Haich'êng.

British Marriage Officers in China—*continued*

Post.	Rank.	District.
Harbin . .	Consul . .	The Province of Heilungkiang; the Province of Kirin (except the Prefecture of Chilin and Hunch'un, and those portions of the Prefecture of Ch'angch'un and the sub-Prefecture of Pinchou lying south of latitude 44°).
Tientsin .	Consul-General.	The Provinces of Inner and Outer Mongolia (exclusive of Kobdo) and Shansi; the Province of Chihli, except the city and suburbs of Peking; and that portion of the Province of Honan north of the Yellow River.
Peking . .	Vice-Consul .	In the Province of Chihli, the city and suburbs of Peking (*for judicial and registration purposes only*).
Chefoo . .	Consul . .	In the Province of Shantung, the Prefecture of Têngchou, with the exception of the leased territory of Weihaiwei.
Chinan (Tsinan)	,, . .	The Province of Szechuan (except the Prefecture of Têngchou).
Chengtu . .	Consul-General.	The Province of Szechuan (except the Ch'uantung circuit: Ch'ungch'ing, K'ueichou, Suiting, Chungchou, Yuyang, Shihchu).
Chungking .	Vice-Consul .	In the Province of Sfechuan, the Ch'uantung circuit: Ch'ungch'ing, K'ueichou, Suiting, Chungchou, Yuyang, Shihchu.
Hankow . .	Consul-General.	The Provinces of Shensi, Kansu, and Ch'inghai; that portion of the province of Honan south of the Yellow River; the Province of Hupeh (except the Shihho and Chingi circuits: Shihnan, Hofêng, Ichang, Chingchou).
Ichang . .	Consul . .	In the Province of Hupeh, the Shihho and Chingi circuits: Shihnan, Hofêng, Ichang, Chingchou.
Changsha .	,, . .	The Province of Hunan.
Kiukiang .	,, . .	The Province of Kiangsi.
Wuhu . .	,, . .	The Province of Anhui.
Shanghai .	Consul-General.	In the Province of Kiangsu, the Sung-'tai-su circuit: Sungchiang, T'aits'ang, Suchou.
Nanking . .	Consul . .	In the Province of Kiangsu, the Prefecture of Chiangning.
Chinkiang .	,, . .	The Province of Kiangsu (except the Prefecture of Chiangning and the Sung-t'ai-su circuit: Sungchiang, T'aits'ang, Suchou).
Hangchow .	,, . .	The Province of Chekiang (except the Ningshao-t'ai and Wên-ch'u circuits: Ningpo, Shaoshing, T'aichou, Wênchou, Ch'uchou).

BRITISH MARRIAGE OFFICERS IN CHINA—*continued*

Post.	Rank.	District.
Ningpo and Wenchow	Vice-Consul .	In the Province of Chekiang, the Ning-shao-t'ai and Wênch'u circuits: Ningpo, Shaoshing, T'aichou, Wênchou, Ch'uchou.
Foochow .	Consul . .	The Province of Fukien (except Ch'üanchou and Yungch'un, in the Hsing-ch'üan-yung circuit, and the whole of the T'ing-chang-lung circuit, consisting of T'ingchou, Changchou, and Lungyen).
Amoy . .	,, . .	In the Province of Fukien, the Hsing-ch'üan-yung circuit (except the Prefecture of Hsinghua) and the T'ing-chang-lung circuit, except the Prefecture of T'ingchou (Ch'üanchou, Yungch'un, Changchou, Lungyen).
Canton . .	Consul-General.	The Province of Kuangtung (except Ch'aochou and Chiaying, in the Hui-ch'ao-chia circuit, and the whole of the Ch'iungyai, Lien-ch'in, and Kao-lei-yang circuits, consisting of the Island of Hainan, Lienchou, Ch'inchou, Kaochou, Leichou, Yangchiang).
Swatow . .	Consul . .	In the Province of Kuangtung, the Hui-ch'ao-chia circuit (except the Prefecture of Huichou); and in the Province of Fukien, the Prefecture of T'ingchou (Ch'aochou, Chiaying, T'ingchou).
Kiungchow and Pakhoi	,, . .	In the Province of Kuangtung, the Ch'iungyai, Lien-ch'in, and Kao-lei-yang circuits: the Island of Hainan, Lienchou, Ch'inchou, Kaochou, Leichou, Yangchiang.
Wuchow. .	,, . .	The Province of Kuanghsi.
Yünnan-fu .	Consul-General.	The Province of Yünnan (except Tali, Yungch'ang, Lichiang, Mênghua, and Yungpei, in the I-hsi circuit): the Province of Kueichow.
Tengyueh .	Consul . .	In the Province of Yunnan, the I-hsi circuit (except Ch'uhsiung): Tali, Yungch'ang, Lichiang, Mênghua, Yungpei.
Kashgar. .	Consul-General.	The new Dominion and Kobdo.

The districts above specified shall also be deemed to be the districts assigned to His Majesty's Consular officers for the purpose of the registration of the births and deaths of British subjects.

CHINESE MARITIME CUSTOMS

Indoor Staff (June 1, 1915)

INSPECTORATE GENERAL.

Peking—

Inspector General.—Sir F. A. Aglen.
Chief Secretary.—C. A. V. Bowra.
Audit Secretary.—R. C. Guernier.
Chinese Secretary.—G. F. H. Acheson.
Acting Staff Secretary and Private Secretary.—W. H. C. Weippert.
Assistant Secretary.—L. Sandercock.
Acting Assistant Secretary.—J. E. Hartshorn.
Acting Assistant Sec.—E. B. Howell.
Acting Assistant Audit Secretary.—R. L. Warren.
Acting Assistant Chinese Secretary.—H. Kishimoto.
Acting Service Chief Accountant.—R. Inokuma.
Acting Revenue Chief Accountant.—L. H. Lawford.
Assistants.—P. Vaes, J. C. O'G. Anderson, Y. H. J. Cloarec, E. G. Smith.
Miscellaneous.—J. Mackenzie.

DETACHED.

Foreign Assistant.—W. J. Adderley.
Chinese Assistants.—Chan Lün, Cheong Kam, Wong Cheung-tso, Chung Mun Kwong, Wong Haiu-sing, Hü Kam-shui.

Shanghai—

STATISTICAL DEPARTMENT.

Statistical Sec.—F. E. Taylor.[1]
Deputy Commissioner (additional).—K. T. F. F. Tochtermann.
Acting Assistant Statistical Secretary.—Ting I-hsien.
Assistants.—N. R. M. Shaw, Ling Boo Ying.

London—

Non-resident Sec.—P. H. King.
Assistants.—P. L. O. Hill, T. C. Germain.

Harbin and District (including Suifenho, Manchouli, Aigun, Sansing, Lahasusu)—

Commissioner.—P. J. Grevedon.
Deputy Commissioner.—G. C. F. Holland.
Assistants.—H. Dawson-Gröne, H. E. Prettejohn, R. D. Mansfield, E. H. Borowski, C. Bos E. Bernadsky, J. Javrotsky, N. V. Jiejin, E. J. Ohrnberger, H. S. Guinness, E. E. Borissoff.
Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—J. Steinacher.

Hunchun and District (including Lungchingtsun)—

Acting Commissioner.—K. H. von Lindholm.
Assistants.—A. H. Forbes, T. Jissoji.
Chinese Assistant.—Wong Tsoo-bah.

Mukden—

Commissioner.—C. H. Brewett-Taylor.
Chinese Clerk—Chen Ti Tsen.

Antung and District (including Tatungkow)—

Commissioner.—J. W. Richardson.
Assistants—J. Fukumoto, J. H. Cubbon, K. B. Surh, K. Kakihana, Shih Ching, Ting kwei-tang.

Dairen—

Acting Commissioner.—T. Ebara.
Acting Deputy Commissioner—M. Kitadai.
Assistants.—P. W. A. Scott, S. Ishida, G. Tsunashima, K. Ishia, Lu Ping.

Newchwang—

Commissioner.—C. E. S. Wakefield.
Assistants.—A. J. Basto, H. B. Hawkins, Wang T'ung Kwan.
Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—G. Knox.

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[1] Resigned October, 1918.

Chinwangtao—

Commissioner.—F. W. Maze.
Deputy Commissioner.—E. G. Lebas.
Chinese Assistant.—Lo Ch'i-ming.

Tientsin—

Commissioner.—F. W. Maze.
Deputy Commissioner.—P. R. Walsham.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—A. G. Bethell.
Assistants.—F. L. Bessell, H. D. O'Kelly, Y. Kurematsu, A. N. Chesshire, C. M. Petterson, S. Momikura, J. R. Marsh, G. Bocher.
Chinese Assistants.—Leung Joo Mong, Tai T'in Chuk, Wang Ki-ming, Pu Lü-chung.
Tidesurveyors.—W. J. Hewett, W. O. Pinkerton.

Lungkcw—

Commissioner.—A. H. Sugden.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—L. Peel.
Assistant.—Hya Song-van.

Chefoo—

Commissioner.—A. H. Sugden.
Assistants.—T. A. M. Castle, H. W. Bradley, M. Nakamura.
Chinese Assistant.—Oong Zur-tsung.
Tidesurveyor.—T. Wright.
Assistant Tidesurveyor.—M. B. Nilsen.

Kiachow—

Commissioner.—M. Tachibana.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—H. Otaki.
Assistants.—S. Nishigori, M. Morimoto, I. Ando, A. Nakashima, U. Masho.

Chungking—

Commissioner.—W. R. McD. Parr.
Assistants.—E. T. Williams, K. Nordström.
Chinese Assistants.—Tong Chi-ta, Tong Ziao-han.
Tidesurveyor.—D. MacLennan.

Wanhsien—

Commissioner.—W. R. McD. Parr.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—T. Suzuki.

Ichang—

Acting Commissioner.—P. B. de Rautenfeld.
Assistants.—W. O. Law, C. B. W. Moore, K. F. Fung.
Tidesurveyor.—C. S. C. Davies.

Shasi—

Acting Commissioner.—J. D. D. de la Touche.
Chinese Assistant.—Chen Tso-chü.
Tidesurveyor.—W. E. Clark.

Changsha—

Acting Commissioner.—W. M. Andrew.
Foreign Assistants.—N. H. Schregardus, S. A. Konovaloff.
Chinese Assistant.—Chang Pai-leh.
Tidesurveyor—O. H. Schmitto.

Yochow—

Commissioner.—N. E. Bryant.
Assistant.—Oong Kwai-sung.
Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—E. Shelton.

Hankow—

Commissioner.—J. F. Oiesen.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—C. F. Johnston.
Assistants.—F. R. C. Surplice, Y. Marsunaga, E. T. Schjöth, D. C. Orr, K. Hirano.
Chinese Assistants.—Chang Shao-ming, Ko Chen-chien, T. Manuel Wong.
Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—L. A. Byworth.

Kiukiang—

Commissioner.—P. de Tanner.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—F. W. Lyons.
Foreign Assistants.—J. M. H. Osborne, T. Yamamoto.
Chinese Assistants.—Chun Kü, Leung Shi-nam, Tsien Chung-how.
Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—E. Molloy.

Wuhu—

Commissioner.—J. H. W. Houstoun.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—A. G. Wallas.
Assistants.—F. Marti, F. D. Goddard.
Chinese Assistant.—Chan Pak-hong.
Tidesurveyor.—R. C. Starling.

Nanking—

Commissioner.—J. H. Macoun.
Assistants.—E. H. Hunter, E. A. MacDonald.
Chinese Assistants.—Woo Sih-yung, Liu Ping-i, Li Ting-yuan.
Tidesurveyor.—E. Hubbard.

Chinkiang—

Commissioner.—F. J. Mayers.
Assistants.—H. St. J. Wilding, M. Miyoshi.
Tidesurveyor.—S. Otani.

Shanghai—

Commissioner.—R. H. R. Wade.
Acting Commissioner.—R. H. R. Wade.
Deputy Commissioner, In-door.—L. de Luca.
Deputy Commissioner, Out-door.—E. B. Howell.
Acting Deputy Commissioner (Shanghai District Accountant).—J. Steinberg.
Acting Deputy Commissioner (Native Customs).—S. F. Wright.
Acting Deputy Commissioner (Out-door, Bonding and Returns).—H. D. Hilliard.
Assistants.—A. Berthet, H. L. Russell, A. J. Commijs, C. Kliene, A. J. Basto, C. Pape, A. Wilson, A. C. E. Brand, C. A. S. Williams, S. Kancko, F. H. Maas, S. Sakaki, E. E. Blanco, T. Aida, A. M. Maltchenko, K. Yufu, R. S. Campbell, R. C. Grierson, T. Imai, P. B. Joly, H. C. Morgan, M. Cupelli, T. R. Banister, C. Neprud, L. K. Little, N. Yamguchi, M. Itoh, S. Matsushima, S. Tsuji, J. M. J. Richard.
Chinese Assistants.—Lau Hon-chi, Nga Ung Ping, Chung Kwoh-chun, Wong Yun Za, Wong Ching-yuen, Tsu Yun-wang, Huang Lang-chuen, Woo Chien Son, Ching Wen-ping, Li Kway-yoong, Hsü Ho-chang, Zia Tsu-wai, Chiu Tso-chi, Hsia Ting-tao, Au Shih-she, Teng Chung-ping.
hang.
Clerk.—J. Berthelot.
Transport Officer.—W. A. Roberts.

COAST INSPECTOR'S DEPARTMENT.

Coast Inspector.—W. F. Tyler.[1]
Deputy Coast Inspector.—T. J. Eldridge.

HARBOUR DEPARTMENT.

Harbour Master.—H. G. Mÿhre.
Assistant Harbour Masters.—L. Antoncich, A. D. S. Powell.

WORKS DEPARTMENT.

Engineer-in-Chief.—D. C. Dick.
Engineer.—L. T. Stodart.
Assistant Engineer.—A. B. Puddicombe.
Architect.—L. W. C. Lorden.
Assistant Architect.—W. S. Read.

Soochow—

Commissioner.—J. W. Loureiro.
Foreign Assistant.—R. A. May.
Chinese Assistant.—Henry Wong.
Kiangsu Likin Collectorate—Commissioner-in-Charge.—J. W. Loureiro.

Hangchow—

Commissioner.—E. Alabaster.
Acting Deputy Commissioner (at Kashing).—W. C. G. Howard.
Assistant.—A. W. Leach.
Chinese Assistants.—Ho Chee-fai, Ma Gee-shien.

Chekiang Likin Collectorate—

Commissioner-in-Charge.—E. Alabaster.

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[1] Since resigned.

Ningpo—

Commissioner.—E. Gilchrist.
Foreign Assistants.—P. P. P. M. Kremer, C. Ogiwara.
Chinese Assistant.—Chen Tze-heng.
Tidesurveyor.—T. H. Blowey.

Wenchow—

Commissioner.—C. E. Tanant.
Assistant.—U. Matsubara.
Chinese Assistant.—Wong Haiu Geng.
Acting Tidesurveyor and Harbour Master.—C. Ahlberg.

Santuao—

Acting Commissioner.—F. W. Carey.
Assistant.—A. S. Deane.

Foochow—

Commissioner.—T. T. H. Ferguson.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—C. N. Holwill.
Foreign Assistants.—W. R. Myers, U. Theodoli.
Chinese Assistants. — Chen Chin Ting, Woo Kuang-chun, Lu Shouwen.
Tidesurveyor.—E. Stevens.

Amoy—

Commissioner.—E. G. Lowder.
Deputy Commissioner. — J. H. Berruyer.
Assistants.—Y. Hara, A. S. Campbell.
Chinese Assistant.—Tan Woon Chai.
Tidesurveyor.—N. A. A. Nielsen.

Swatow—

Commissioner.—J. H. M. Moorhead.
Acting Deputy Commissioner.—B. D. Tisdall.
Foreign Assistants. — P. G. S. Barentzen, E. Miyamura, S. A. Klubien.
Tidesurveyor.—J. S. Enright.

Canton—

Commissioner.—F. A. Carl.
Acting Deputy Commissioners.—J. N. Segerdal, A. Wilson.
Assistants. — R. T. Nelson, G. Yoshida.
Chinese Assistants.—Hü Ping-fai, Tai T'in' Pui, Tang Tsung-mün, Tai Tin-tsoi, Fong Kün-chiu, Chen Shao, Chan Mong-huang.
Harbour Master.—A. Hotson.

Kowloon—

Commissioner.—A. H. Harris.
Deputy Commissioner.—C. Thorne.
Chinese Assistants.—Chiu Ho-ping, Wong Iu-on.
Tidesurveyor.—A. Morrison.

Lappa—

Commissioner.—T. D. Moorhead.
Foreign Assistants. — C. A. R. Cabral, A. M. de Souza.
Chinese Assistant.—Cheung Yuk-tong.

Kongmoon—

Acting Commissioner. — H. J. Sharples.
Foreign Assistants.—A. C. Biesterfeld, P. E. Huber.
Chinese Assistants.—Wong Hin-wa, Wong Tat-tso, Huo Ch'ih-ch'ien.
Tidesurveyor.—T. T. Wiull.

Samshui—

Acting Commissioner.—W. MacDonald.
Assistant.—P. H. Everhart.
Tidesurveyor.—M. Hellstrand.

Wuchow—

Acting Commissioner. — C. E. Holworthy.
Assistants. — G. Thiessen, A. Feragen.
Tidesurveyor.—W. O. Lloyd.

Nanning—

Acting Commissioner.—R. F. C. Hedgeland.

Kiungchow—

Acting Commr.—C. T. Bowring.
Assistant.—S. Tsuda.
Chinese Assistant.—Chan Shiu-pang.
Tidesurveyor.—Y. M. Mudès.

Pakhoi—

Acting Commissioner.—D. Percebois.
Tidesurveyor.—W. B. Andrews.

Lungchow—

Assistant-in-Charge.—A. P. A. Boüinais.

Mengtze and District (including Pishihchai, Hokow, and Yunnanfu).

Commissioner.—P. C. Hansson.
Foreign Assistants.—A. L. M. C. Pichon, A. A. d'Eça, H. W. Hosking, C. H. B. Joly, W. E. Annet.
Chinese Assistant.—Yang Minghsin.

Szemao—

Assistant-in-Charge.—L. P. G. de Cartier.

Tengyueh—

Assistant-in-Charge.—H. G. Fletcher.
Assistant.—A. Black.

Yatung—

CHINESE POST OFFICE

Foreign Staff

As on October 23, 1913

Co-Director General—

Destelan, Picard .	Peking (D.G.)

Commissioners—

Tollefsen, E. . .	Fukien
Hyland, A. H. .	Chihli
Summers, H. D. .	Peking (D.G.)

District Postmasters—

Shields, C. H. .	Canton
Ritchie, W. W. .	Shanghai
Rousse, J. M. C. .	Peking (D.G.)

District Deputy-Postmaster—

Stirling, J. . .	Kiangsu

Sub. District Postmasters—

McDowall, J. L. .	Kiangsi
Blix, N. J. . .	Manchuria
Tolliday, F. B. .	Szechuan
Doodha, N. B. .	Honan
Osland-Hill, G. E. .	Hupeh

Sub. Dist. Dep. Postmasters—

McLorn, D. . .	Peking (D.G.)
Poullain, H. V. .	,,
Hulme, O. H. .	Anhui

Acting Commissioners—

Stursberg, W. A. .	Shanghai (P.S.D.)
Poletti, F. . .	Peking (D.G.)
Nixon, F. A. .	Shansi
Manners, T. . .	Kuangsi
Filippini, P. . .	Shantung
Newman, E. F. S. .	Hunan
Arlington, L. C. .	Chekiang
Mellows, O. . .	Shensi
Ortolani, A. . .	Yunnan
Tudhope, G. . .	Sinkiang (*on transfer*)
Boyers, C. B. .	Sinkiang (*on transfer*)

Deputy Commissioners—

Mullen, D. . .	D.U.L.
Stursberg, W. A. .	Shanghai (P.S.D.)
Poletti, F. . .	Peking (D.G.)
Parnell, H. S. .	(D.U.L.)
Nixon, F. A. .	Shansi
Manners, T. . .	Kuangsi
Caretti, E. . .	Shanghai
Greenfield, J. A. .	Peking (D.G.)
Parkin, J. C. . .	Hupeh
Filippini, P. . .	Shantung
Henry, L. D. .	Chihli
Newman, E. F. S. .	Hunan
Arlington, L. C. .	Chekiang
Petersen, P. . .	Manchuria
Chieri, V. . .	Kuangtung
Smith, V. . .	Chihli

Acting Deputy Commissioners—

Gwynne, T. H.	Peking (D.G.)
Summers, M. E.	Kiangsu
Nordström, E.	Peking (D.G.)
Kirkhope, H.	,,
Merrien, F.	Szechuan
Jaurias, C.M.R.A. de	Harbin

First Assistants (B)—

Mellows, O.	Shensi
Allen, A. H.	(D.U.L.)
Ortolani, A.	Yunnan
Gwynne, T. H.	Peking (D.G.)

Second Assistants (A)—

Stapleton-Cotton, V. W.	(D.U.L.)
Wilse, G. K.	Amoy
Tudhope, G.	Sinkiang (*on transfer*)
Summers, M. E.	Kiangsu
Smith, F. L.	Shanghai
Boyers, G. B.	Sinkiang
Keating, P. J.	Manchuria
Geear, C.	Kiangsu
Eyde, A.	,,
Nordström, E.	Peking (D.G.)
Kendall, F. G. L.	Chihli
Kirkhope, H.	Peking (D.G.)

Second Assistants (B)—

Forzinetti, R. G.	(D.U.L.)
Ross, J.	(,,)
Piry, A. P.	(,,)
Baker, G. E.	(,,)
Merrien, F.	Szechuan
Guaita, F.	Shantung
Jones, H. O.	Chinkiang
Chaudoin, E. A. L.	Kuangtung
Jaurias, C. M. R. A. de	Harbin
Lebedoff, W. G.	Hupeh
Cavalière, E. A.	Szechuan
O'Neill, W.	Yunnan
Cammiade, E.	Chungking

Third Assistants (A)—

Marshall, H.	(D.U.L)
Abron, A.	Chefoo
Holm, K. J.	Swatow
Manners, P.	Shanghai
Rose, E.	Hunan
Caudron, R. M.	Shansi
Kierkegaard, H. S.	Peking (D.G.)
Gutierrez, J. M.	Honan
Poletti, T.	Peking (P.G.)
Chapelain, A. M.	Shanghai (P.S.D.)
Reeks, H. A.	Chekiang
Hattori, K	Tsingtao
McLorn, J.	Fukien

Third Assistants (B)—

Bottu, A.	(D.U.L.)
Molland, C. E.	(,,)
Matsunaga, T.	Shanghai
Washbrook, A. G.	(D.U.L.)
Molland, H. H.	Peking (D.G.)
Greenfield, J. N.	Wanhsien
John, A. L.	(D.U.L.)
Depardon. J.	Peking (D.G.)
Roth, E.	Kiangsi
Tomajeff, A.	Harbin
Harris, S. J.	Soochow
Powell, A. R.	Peking (D.G.)

Fourth Assistants (A)—

Kingham, T. S.	(D.U.L.)
Rakman, P.	Peking
Myers, F. R.	(D.U.L.)
Nordquist, O.	Ichang
Rosse. G. M.	Kuangtung
Bousquié, E. G.	Shanghai
Leblanc, P. C.	Hokow
Larsen, E.	Szechuan

Fourth Assistants (B)—

Sterpin, E.	(D.U.L.)
Berthollet, M.	(,,)
Grisaud, J. E.	(,,)
Barberat, L. A.	Peking (D.G.)
Kanazashi, P. K.	Hupeh

Miscellaneous.

Proof Reader—

Bates, J. A. E.	Shanghai (P.S.D.)

Chief Postal Officers—

Encarnação, E. E.	Shanghai
Oliveira, W. M. d'	Newchwang

First Postal Officers—

Marçal, F. M.	Shanghai
Lewis, A. H.	Kiukiang
Senna, J. M. E. S. de	Kiungchow
Rudland, J.	Chihli

Transport Officer—

Rosario, A.	Shanghai

THE SALT REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The Foreign Staff, 1918

Chief Inspectorate

Sir Reginald Gamble, Kt.[1]

Foreign Associate Chief Inspector

C. H. Lauru	Financial Secretary.
W. R. Strickland	English Secretary.
P. Loureiro	Assistant Financial Secretary.
J. M. Barnard	Assistant English Secretary.
A. de B. Giolma	Accountant.
A. S. Baskett	,,
A. C. Bothner-By	Probationary Assistant District Inspector.

Fengtien District Inspectorate

Iwao Kono	Foreign District Inspector.
L. H. Drakeford	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.

Changlu District Inspectorate

Nagamasa Tei	Foreign District Inspector.
J. A. Stewart	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.
Charles Lee	,, ,, ,, ,,

Shantung District Inspectorate

C. G. G. Pearson	Foreign District Inspector.
A. C. R. Portway	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.
K. Tanabe	,, ,, ,, ,,

Hotung District Inspectorate

G. Baldwin	Foreign District Inspector.

Liangcheh District Inspectorate

T. Okohira	Foreign District Inspector.
A. Bookless	Foreign Investigator.

Fukien District Inspectorate

T. I. Diedrichsen	Foreign District Inspector.

Kwangtung District Inspectorate

A. de Broc	Foreign District Inspector.
M. Padovani	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.
A. A. Archangelsky	,, ,, ,, ,,

Yunnan District Inspectorate

R. L. P. Baude	Foreign District Inspector.
G. Caffarena	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.

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[1] Sir Richard M. Dane, K.C.I.E., the first Foreign Associate Chief Inspector and the original organiser of the reformed Salt Administration, resigned in 1918.

Haichow District Inspectorate

A. Bilger	Acting Foreign District Inspector.
A. Waiegnein	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.

Yangchow District Inspectorate

T. Takasu	Foreign District Inspector.
N. A. Andersen	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.
Oscar Berg	,, ,, ,, ,,

Sungkiang District Inspectorate

G. Brauns	Foreign District Inspector (absent).
C. Gimbel	,, ,, ,,
K. Sugimoto	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.

Chuannan District Inspectorate

A. R. Luckie	Acting Foreign District Inspector.
W. Kelly	Foreign Assistant District Inspector.

Chuanpei District Inspectorate

M. Guseo	Acting Foreign District Inspector.

Hankow Audit Department

E. M. Gale	Foreign Auditor.

Changchun Audit Department

W. M. Palmer	Foreign Auditor.

Huating Collectorate

R. Geerts	Foreign Collector.

Dolonor Collectorate

A. F. Evans	Foreign Collector.
J. Parsons	Launch Inspector.

TELEGRAPH AND TELEPHONE ADMINISTRATION

Foreign Staff

A. H. Eriksen, Adviser. V. Petersen, Superintendent, Tientsin; H. Langeback, Superintendent, Tuerin, Mongolia; T. O. Ibsen, Acting Superintendent, Shanghai; E. Mengel, Superintendent, Yunnanfoo; H. F. Henningsen, Superintendent, Peking; D. Pedersen, in charge instrument workshop, Shanghai; K. Rothe, Telephone Engineer, Tientsin; H. de Linde, Telephone Engineer (detached); — Sudzuki, Telephone Engineer, Peking Telephone Exchange; — Sujino, Telephone Engineer (detached).

Foreign Associations connected with China

1. The China Association (British); *Head Office*, 99 Cannon Street London; *President*, G. Jamieson, C.M.G.; *Chairman of Committee*, F. Anderson; *Vice-Chairman*, C. H. Ross; *Hon. Treasurer*, R. Chatterton Wilcox; *Secretary*, H. C. Wilcox; *General Committee*, Right Hon. Lord Inchcape, G.C.M.G., etc., Sir T. Sutherland, G.C.M.G., Sir Alfred Dent, K.C.M.G., Sir Walter C. Hillier, K.C.M.G., Sir Charles Dudgeon, Sir Frederick S. A. Bourne, F. Anderson, Byron Brenan, C.M.G., F. Cornes, G. B. Dodwell, W. Fisher, R. S. Gundry, C.B., W. Harwood, J. S. Haskell, R. H. Hill, G. Jamieson, C.M.G., H. D. C. Jones, H. H. Joseph, W. D. Little, H. W. Robertson, C. H. Ross, D. C. Rutherford, Charles V. Sale, F. Salinger, Gershom Stewart, M.P., H. D. Stewart, A. M. Townsend, T. H. Whitehead, R. C. Wilcox, A. G. Wood. *China Branches* at Shanghai, Hongkong, Tientsin, and Hankow.

The China Association has established an Incorporated School of Chinese in connexion with King's College, London, under the following Committee of Management: Sir Walter Hillier, K.C.M.G., Sir Charles Dudgeon, R. S. Gundry, C.M.G., J. H. Gwither, Byron Brenan, C.M.G., G. Jamieson, C.M.G. (*Hon. Sec.*).

2. The China Society (British); *Chairman*, Byron Brenan, C.M.G.; *Vice-Chairman*, A. M. Townsend; *Hon. Treasurer*, J. Maclennan; *Hon. Secretary*, P. K. C. Tyau; *Secretary*, Lionel Giles, M.A., D.Litt., 13 Whitehall Gardens, Acton Hill, London, W.; *The Council*, H. F. Brady, Capt. N. P. Brooke, George Brown, L. Cranmer-Byng, Arthur Diósy, Sir Walter C. Hillier, K.C.M.G., George Jamieson, C.M.G., Rev. C. Currie Martin, G. M. H. Playfair, F. T. Souter, A. M. Townsend.
3. North China Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society; *President*, Sir Everard Fraser, K.C.M.G.; *Curator*, Dr. A. Stanley; *Librarian*, Mrs. F. Ayscough; *Hon. Treasurer*, R. R. Hynd; *Hon. Secretary and Editor*, S. Couling, M.A.; *Councillors*, Prof. C. du Bois-Raymond, Dr. J. C. Ferguson, H. E. Fulford, C.M.G., Dr. F. E. Hinckley, Hon. Gaston Kahn, W. E. Leveson.
4. The American Association of China. Shanghai. *President*, Dr. S. A. Ransom; *Vice-President*, F. J. Raven, *Hon. Secretary*, Dr. W. T. Findley; *Hon. Treasurer*, J. W. Gallagher; *Committee*, J. J. Connell, J. C. Shengle, Carl F. Seitz, W. S. Fleming, H. H. Arnold, S. Trumper, W. A. Reed. (In connection with the American Asiatic Association, New York. Secretary, John Foord, P.O. Box 1500, New York.)
5. The American Association of North China, Peking. *President*, P. Hitchcock.
6. The Anglo-American Association, Peking.
7. American School of Archæology in China. *Chairman*, Charles D. Wolcott.

8. Anglo-Chinese Friendship Society, Peking.
9. Chinese Anglo-American Society. Shanghai. *Hon. Secretary*, Ch'ên Kuo-ch'uan.
10. Association Amicale Franco-Chinoise; *Head Office*, 18 Rue La Fayette, Paris; Georges Ducrocq, Secretary. *Branch*, Peking.
11. Japanese Association. Shanghai.

II

FOREIGN POSSESSIONS IN CHINA

British: Hongkong, Weihaiwei.

French: Kuangchouwan.

Japanese: Formosa, Kuantung, Kiaochou (taken from Germany).

Portuguese: Macao.

In addition to the above foreign settlements exist at the following treaty ports: Amoy, Canton, Chinkiang, Hangchow, Hankow, Kiukiang, Newchwang, Shanghai, Soochow, Tientsin.

Hongkong.—A free port. The most important foreign possession in China, for many years the pivot of the Far Eastern trade, and practically its banking and commercial centre. The colony comprises the island of Hongkong, separated from the mainland by a narrow strait ceded to Great Britain in 1841. Kowloon, a strip of territory on the mainland, was ceded in 1860, and to this was added in 1898, under lease for 99 years, the peninsula south of a line drawn between Deep Bay and Mirs Bay, together with the islands of Lantao and Lammas. In all the concession covers an area of 390 square miles, including the island of Hongkong, 29 square miles, and has a population of 436,000, of whom from 8000 to 9000 are Europeans. The total tonnage entering Hongkong harbour in 1914 was 36,756,951 tons, comprising 4236 ocean steamers, 4213 river steamers, 3403 launches, and 27,463 Chinese junks.

Governor and Commander-in-Chief: Sir F. H. May, K.C.M.G.

Weihaiwei.—The territory of Weihaiwei was leased to Great Britain by China by a convention signed at Peking on July 1, 1898. It is situated in the province of Shantung, and comprises the island of Liukung, all the islands in the Bay of Weihaiwei, and a belt of land ten miles wide along the entire coastline. Total area, 285 square miles. Population, 146,000. In addition to the leased territory there is a sphere of influence which comprises that portion of the province of Shantung lying east of the meridian 121·40, an area of 1500 square miles.

Commissioner: Sir J. H. Stewart Lockhart, K.C.M.G.

Kuangchouwan.—A strip of territory on the coast of Kuangtung, with the islands of Tunghai and Nanchou. Total area, about 200 square miles; population, 170,000. The concession is under the administration of the Governor of Indo-China.

Formosa (Taiwan).—This island was ceded by China to Japan in 1895 by the Treaty of Shimonoseki. Total area, 13,500 square miles; population, 3¼ millions.

Kuantung Province.—Territory at the southern extremity of Liaotung Peninsula (Manchuria). Capital, Dairen (Tairen, formerly Dalny). Originally leased to Russia, March 27, 1898, for 25 years, subject to extension by mutual agreement. By the Treaty of Portsmouth, 1905, the lease was transferred to Japan, and in 1915 it was agreed that the lease should be extended to 99 years from the original date of the cession of the territory (i.e. 1898). Area, 1300 square miles; population (1911), 488,089, excluding military and naval forces.

Kiaochou.—Leased in 1898 to Germany for a period of 99 years. Area' 193 square miles; population, 165,000, including the sphere of interest, which comprises a 50-kilometre zone from all points of the leasehold territory. As a result of the outbreak of war between Germany and the Powers of the Triple Entente Japan presented, August 15, 1914, an ultimatum calling upon Germany to surrender Kiaochou in the interest of the peace of the Far East. Germany refused, and a joint Anglo-Japanese expedition attacked Tsingtao, which surrendered on November 7, 1914. By the terms of the agreement between China and Japan of May 25, 1915, the question of the future of the territory was dealt with in the following clauses :—

Treaty respecting the Province of Shantung.—Art. 1. The Chinese Government agrees to give full assent to all matters upon which the Japanese Government may hereafter agree with the German Government relating to the disposition of all rights, interests and concessions which Germany by virtue of treaties or otherwise possesses in relation to the Province of Shantung.

Exchange of Notes respecting the Restoration of the Leased Territory of Kiaochou Bay.—When, after the termination of the present war, the leased territory of Kiaochou Bay is completely left to the free disposal of Japan, the Japanese Government will restore the said leased territory to China under the following conditions :—

1. The whole of Kiaochou Bay to be opened as a commercial port.
2. A concession under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan to be established at a place designated by the Japanese Government.
3. If the foreign Powers desire it, an international concession may be established.
4. As regards the disposal to be made of the buildings and properties of Germany and the conditions and procedure relating thereto, the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government shall arrange the matter by mutual agreement before the restoration.

Macao.—At the southern extremity of the Sikiang (West River) delta, 40 miles from Hongkong, the Portuguese first settled here in 1557, and held the territory from the Emperor of China for an annual rental of

Tls. 500 until 1848, when the Governor refused to continue the subsidy and expelled the Chinese authorities. Portuguese sovereignty over the territory with its dependence of Taipa and Colowan was recognised by China in 1887. Area, 11 square miles; population, 78,000, of whom 5000 are Portuguese. The harbour has for some time been silting up, but in 1912 dredging work was undertaken with a view to maintaining a four-mile channel of 11 feet in depth and 45 yards wide. In 1915 the Government bought a dredger and two tugboats in order to increase the channel to a depth that would make it available for the largest river-boats and ultimately overseas shipping.

III

BRITISH TRADE IN CHINA

Before the outbreak of the war in Europe Chambers of Commerce in China were international in character. In 1914–15 the necessity for purely British organizations was recognized, and on May 30, 1915, a British Chamber of Commerce for Shanghai was inaugurated, as a first step towards a British Chamber of Commerce of China. The movement was extended to other ports, and in due course it is hoped that the process of affiliating the different Chambers in a General Chamber of Commerce will be completed.

Shanghai British Chamber of Commerce

(1, The Bund, Shanghai.)

Hon. President: Sir Everard Fraser, K.C.M.G., H.M.'s Consul-General.

Hon. Vice-Presidents: H. H. Fox, C.M.G., Archibald Rose, C.I.E.

Chairman: John Johnstone (Jardine, Matheson, and Co., Ltd.).

Vice-Chairman: A. W. Burkill (A. R. Burkill and Sons).

Committee: H. E. Arnhold (Arnhold, Bros., and Co.), H. H. Girardet (Reiss and Co.), A. Howard (D. Sassoon and Co.), C. G. Humphrys (Asiatic Petroleum Co.), E. F. Mackay (Butterfield and Swire), H. A. J. Macray (Dodwell and Co.), E. C. Richards (P. and O. S. N. Co.), G. A. Richardson (Bradley and Co.), A. G. Stephen (Hongkong and Shanghai Bank), H. G. Simms (North China Insurance Co.).

Secretary: Ernest Burnip.

Editorial Secretary: P. Campbell.

Members:[1] D. E. J. Abraham, Atkinson and Dallas, Ltd., Algar and Co., Allen and Handburys, Ltd., Arnhold, Bros., and Co., Ltd., Robert Anderson and Co., Ltd., Arthur and Co., Ltd., Arnaud Coste and R. V. Dent, Asiatic Petroleum Co., O. H. Blackburn, Barlow and Co , Babcock and Wilcox,

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[1] This list is not complete, as new members are continually being elected.

Members (continued):—

S. T. Barma, Benjamin and Potts, J. P. Bissett and Co., Boyes, Bassett, and Co., Bowern and Co., E. Brooke and Co., British Cigarette Co., Ltd., British-American Tobacco Co., Brewer and Co., Ltd., Bradley and Co., Ltd., Bradford Dyers' Association, Brunner, Mond, and Co., Ltd., H. Browett, Bryant and Ryde, Butterfield and Swire, A. R. Burkill and Sons, Burroughs, Wellcome, and Co., Caravan Commercial Co., Canadian Pacific Ocean Services, Ltd., Canadian Trade Commissioner, Alex. Campbell and Co., Calico Printers' Assoc., Caldbeck, MacGregor, and Co., Canton Insurance Office, Ltd., Cawasjee, Pallanjee, and Co., Central China Import Co., Central Agency, Ltd., China Land and Building Co., China Mutual Life Insurance Co., Chartered Bank, China Navigation Co., China Silk and Agency Co., Coddington and Lamb, Thomas Cook and Son, China Soap and Candle Co., Collins and Co., G. D. Coutts, Commercial Union Insurance Co., Calder Marshall and Co., Currimbhoy and Co., Ltd., Dick Bellamy and Co., Davies and Brooke, S. J. David and Co., H. C. Dixon and Co., F. R. Dastoor and Co., Dodwell and Co., Ltd., Dowler, Forbes, and Co., Duncan and Co., Dunlop Rubber Co., Eastern Trading Co., Ltd.. Eveleigh and Co., Eastern Extension Telegraph Co., Ed. Evans and Sons, Ltd., Ewo Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd., Eagle and Globe Steel Co., Edward Ezra and Co., Fred Ezra and Co., G. T. Fulford and Co., W. A. Farley, Far Eastern Geo. Est., A. Frankau and Co., Ltd., G. Grayrigge and Co., Gordon and Co., Ltd., Garner, Quelch, and Co., Gande, Price, and Co., Geddes and Co., Ltd., G. E. C. of China, Ltd., Goldenberg and Co., Ltd., R. Grimshaw, H. and W. Greer, R. Grundy, Glen Line Agency and Royal Mail S.P. Co., Gibb, Livingstone, and Co., Hall and Holtz, Ltd., Hansom, McNeill, Jones, and Wright, J. D. Hutchison and Co., Hongkong and Shanghai Bank, Cecil Holliday and Co., F. C. Heffer and Co., Richard Haworth and Co., Harvie, Cooke, and Co., J. Hetherington and Sons, Ltd., Heath and Co., Ltd., N. W. Hickling, Hopkins, Dunn, and Co., Ilbert and Co., Ltd., Ivy Dairy, Indo-China S. N. Co., International Cotton Manufacturing Co., Jardine, Matheson, and Co., Ltd., Wm. Jacks and Co., R. M. Joseph, Kung Yik Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd., Kelly and Walsh, Ltd., C. B. Kaye and Co., Thos. Kemp and Co., Kapayang Rubber Estates Co., H. Z. H. Karamelahi and Co , Kailan Mining Administration, E. Kale, J. Llewellyn and Co., C. F. Large, Lih Teh Oil Mill Co., Lane, Crawford, and Co., Wm. Little and Co., Liddell, Bros., and Co., Lowe, Bingham, and Matthews, F. H. Lowe, Lever Bros. (China), Ltd., Lester, Johnson, and Morriss, Lavers and Clark, Simon Levy and Co., Laou Kung Mow Cotton Spinning and Weaving Co., Ltd., H. Dudley Law, Mackenzie and Co., Ltd., Middleton and Co., Morgan Crucible Co., Ltd., Mercantile Bank of India

Members (continued):—

Ltd., T. Macdonald and Co., George McBain, G. Matheson and Co., W. Martin and Co., Maitland and Co., Ltd., Mactavish and Co., Ltd., Moutrie and Co., Ltd., Moore and Co., Ltd., Moller and Co., Major Bros., Maitland and Fearon, H. E. Morris, Hayley Morris, North British Mercantile Ins. Co., Northern Assurance Co., Ltd., Noel, Murray, and Co., New Zealand Insurance Co., North China Insurance Co., New Engineering Works, Norbury, Natzio, and Co., *North China Daily News*, Walter Nutter and Co., Parker, Rielley and Co., P. and O. S. N. Co., H. W. Pilcher, Platt, McLeod, and Wilson, Probst, Hanbury, and Co., Permata Rubber Estate, Ltd., Paulsen and Bayes Davy, Phœnix Assurance Company, W. G. Pirie, Royal Insurance Co., Alex Ross and Co., Rose, Downs, and Thompson, Robinson Piano Co., Representatives for British Manufacturers, Reiss and Co., Reid, Mortimer, and Slee, Reid, Evans, and Co., Reuter's Telegram Co., C. Raynor, Robert Roxburgh, Ltd., Straits and China Textile Co., Stewart, Mackenzie, and Co., Shanghai Dock and Eng. Co., Samuel and Co., Ltd., D. Sassoon and Co., Ltd., E. D. Sassoon and Co., Schiller and Co., Scott, Harding, and Co., Shanghai Horse Bazaar and Motor Co., Ltd., Shanghai Land Investment Co., Shanghai Mercury, Ltd., Shanghai Waterworks, Shewan, Tomes, and Co., Slowe and Co., South British Ins. Co., Shanghai Gas Co., Shanghai Telephone Co., C. E. Sparke, Shanghai Trams, Sun Insurance Office, Ed. Scharff and Co., Shanghai Pilot Boat Co., Shanghai Electric Asbestos Co., Shanghai Stores, Shanghai and Hongkew Wharf Co., Ltd., Shanghai Hotels, Ltd., K. D. Stewart, Standard Life Assurance Co., C. R. Shaw, C. S. Speyer, Shanghai-Malay Rubber Estate, G. H. and N. Thomson, Teesdale and Godfrey, Taikoo Sugar Refinery Co., R. N. Truman and Co., P. O'Brien Twigg, Tata and Sons, A. E. S. Thompson, Times Dharwar and Co., Albert Taylor, Union Insurance Society of Canton, Union Marine Insurance Co., A. S. Watson and Co., J. A. Wattie and Co., Weeks and Co., Ltd., Ed. Wheen and Sons, Wilkinson, Heywood, and Clark, Worthington Pump Co., Ltd., H. P. Wadman, Woosung-Hankow Pilot Association, Wheelock and Co., Westphal, King, and Ramsay, Ltd., White-Cooper and Master, Wrightson and Co., Herbert Whitworth and Co., Yangtsze Insurance Co., Ltd., Yangtszepoo Cotton Mill, Yorkshire Insurance Co., Ltd.

The Chamber issues a monthly publication known as the *British Chamber of Commerce Journal*, and has also established a language school in Shanghai.

Canton British Chamber of Commerce

List of Members: Asiatic Petroleum Co. (South China), (petrol, liquid fuel, oil, paraffin, wax, etc.), Bomanjee and Co. (commission agents, silk merchants), British-American Tobacco Co., Ltd., Brunner, Mond, and Co. (manufacturers of pure alkali and soap), Butterfield and Swire (shipping, engineering, docking, and insurance agents), Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China, Deacon and Co. (general merchants), Dent and Co. (general merchants, silk and tea), N. K. Dhabhar (silk merchant and commission agent), Dialdas and Sons (general merchants, export dealers), Dodwell and Co. (general merchants, machinery, shipping), Dossabhoy and Co. (general merchants), W. Farmer (proprietor, Victoria Hotel), T. E. Griffith (raw and waste silk merchants, general export), Hongkong and Shanghai Banking Corporation, Jardine, Matheson, and Co. (general merchants, shipping, insurance agents), B. F. Kavarana and Co. (silk merchants, commission agents), M. H. Kavarana and Sons (silk merchants, commission agents), S. F. Kavarana (silk merchant, commission agent), Lever Bros. (China), (agents for Lever Brothers, Ltd., Vinolia Co., London; Hodgson and Simpson, Ltd., Wakefield), W. R. Luxley and Co. (importers and exporters, commission agents), M. N. Mehta (merchant, commission agent), E. R. Mogra and Co. (general merchants and commission agent), Nestlé and Anglo-Swiss Condensed Milk Co.), Patell and Co. (merchants and commission agents), K. S. Pavri (importer and exporter), Pohoomull Brothers (general silk merchants, commission agents), Reiss and Co. (silk merchants, shipping insurance), S. D. Setna and Co. (merchants), Shewan, Tomes, and Co. (importers and exporters, machinery business, shipping, insurance), Thomas, Adams, and Wood (civil engineers, architects, and surveyors), A. D. Vania (general merchant), J. P. Vasunia (silk merchant, commission agent), Wassiamull, Assommull, and Co. (general merchants), A. S. Watson and Co. (chemists and ærated water manufacturers).

Other British Chambers of Commerce have been formed at Amoy, Changsha, Chefoo, Chinkiang, Chungking, Foochow, Hankow, Harbin, Hongkong, Mukden, Newchwang, Peking, Swatow, Tientsin and Tsinanfu.

BRITISH COMPANY LAW IN CHINA

As company law has hitherto been unknown in China (a Company Law was first promulgated by mandate on January 1, 1914), it has been necessary for foreign commercial interests to organize their corporations in their own countries or in Far Eastern countries other than China. As a result of the facilities afforded, the larger number of companies operating in China are organized in Hongkong under British Colonial Acts. Thus corporations could be organized in Hongkong with non-British capital and non-British directors, and would operate in China free from all control, as exterritorial rights left each director amenable only to the laws of his own country. With the outbreak of the war the incongruity of a non-British company doing business as a British corporation in China became so conspicuous that it was found necessary to deal with the problem. The following Order in Council was promulgated in November, 1915, to take effect on January 1, 1916, and a new Hongkong law was passed in keeping with the Order-in-Council :—

THE CHINA (COMPANIES) ORDER IN COUNCIL, 1915

At the Court at Buckingham Palace, the 30th day of November, 1915

Whereas by Treaty, grant, usage, sufferance, and other lawful means, His Majesty the King has jurisdiction in China :

And whereas it is desirable to make further provision with reference to the exercise of jurisdiction over British Companies carrying on business within the limits of this Order :—

Now, therefore, His Majesty, by virtue and in exercise of the powers in this behalf by "The Foreign Jurisdiction Act, 1890," or otherwise, in His Majesty vested, is pleased, by and with the advice of His Privy Council, to order, and it is hereby ordered, as follows :—

1. This Order may be cited as "The China (Companies) Order in Council, 1915," and shall be read as one with the "China Order, 1904" (hereinafter called the "Principal Order"), and with any Order amending the same.

2. In this Order—

"The Ordinance" means "The Companies Ordinance, 1911, of the Colony of Hongkong," and includes any Ordinance amending or substituted for the same.

"The Life Insurance Companies Ordinance" means the Life Insurance Companies Ordinance, 1907, of the Colony of Hongkong, and includes any Ordinance amending or substituted for the same.

"China Company" means a Company limited by shares or by guarantee incorporated under the Ordinance, and the operations of which are directed and controlled from some place within the limits of this Order.

"Hongkong China Company" means a Company incorporated under the Ordinance which carries on some part of its business within the limits of this Order, and the operations of which are directed and controlled from some place in Hongkong.

"British Company" means a Company incorporated in the United Kingdom, or in a British Possession, and includes a China Company and a Hongkong China Company.

3.—(1) The Consul-General at Shanghai, including any person acting for such Consul-General, shall be Registrar of Companies at Shanghai.

(2) All acts done within the limits of this Order in pursuance of the provisions of the Ordinance or of the Life Insurance Companies Ordinance by, to, with, or before the Registrar of Companies at Shanghai, shall, subject to the provisions of this Order, be of the same force and validity as if they had been done by, to, with, or before the Registrar of Companies in Hongkong.

(3) The Registrar of Companies at Shanghai shall be entitled to initiate such proceedings in the Court as he may think necessary to enforce compliance with the provisions of this Order on the part of British Companies in China.

4. The Judge may by Rules of Court confer upon Provincial Courts jurisdiction in matters dealt with in the Ordinance, and may specify in such Rules the Courts by which, and the classes of cases in which, such jurisdiction shall be exercised, but subject thereto the jurisdiction conferred by the Ordinance upon any Court shall within the limits of this Order be exercised by the Supreme Court.

5. In all matters relating to a Hongkong China Company the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court and of the Supreme Court of Hongkong shall be concurrent, and the said two Courts shall in all respects be auxiliary to each other.

6. Where any proceedings relating to a Hongkong China Company, or for the winding up of any such company, are commenced in the Supreme Court, and it appears that the principal part of such Company's business is carried on within the limits of Hongkong, or that for any other reason such proceedings might more conveniently be carried on at Hongkong, the Supreme Court may, of its own motion, or on the application of any party, make an Order transferring the proceedings to the Supreme Court of Hongkong.

7. The Supreme Court shall enforce within the limits of this Order any Order or Decree made by the Supreme Court of Hongkong in the course of any proceedings relating to a Hongkong China Company, or for the winding up of any such Company.

8.—(1) The majority of the Directors of a China Company shall be British Subjects resident within the limits of this Order.

(2) If at any time the proportion of Directors who are British Subjects resident within the limits of this Order falls to or below one-half, it shall be the duty of the Directors and also of the Shareholders of the Company to take within 30 days, or such further period as the Court may allow, all necessary steps for the appointment of such number of Directors who are British Subjects resident within the limits of this Order as may be necessary to comply with the provisions of this article.

(3) If default is made in compliance with this article the Company shall be liable to a fine not exceeding 50 dollars for every day during which the default continues, and every Director and every Manager of the Company who knowingly authorizes or permits the default shall be liable to the like penalty.

(4) Failure to comply with the provisions of this article shall be a ground upon which an Order for winding up the Company may be made by the Court.

9. No person other than a British Subject shall be entitled to act as the auditor of a China Company. The appointment of any such person as the auditor of a China Company shall be void, and any certificate or other document given, or act done, by any person who is not a British Subject purporting to act as auditor of a China Company shall not be held to comply with any requirements of the Ordinance.

10. No person other than a British Subject shall be appointed to act within the limits of this Order as liquidator of a British Company or as receiver or manager on behalf of the debenture-holders of the property of a British Company except with the sanction of the Court.

11.—(1) All documents and other written information which a Company is required by the Ordinance to file with the Registrar of Companies shall, in the case of a China Company, be filed with the Registrar of Companies at Shanghai, and a copy of all such documents and other written information shall, in the case of a Hongkong China Company, be filed with the Register of Companies at Shanghai.

(2) If any Company to which this article applies fails to comply with its provisions, the Company and every Officer and Agent of the Company who is knowingly a party to the default shall be liable to a fine not exceeding 50 dollars for every day during which such default has continued.

12. The registered office of a China Company shall be situated within the limits of this Order.

13.—(1) No shares shall be issued by a China Company except either as fully paid up shares or upon the term that the shares shall be paid up in full within a specified period not exceeding *three* months after allotment.

(2) Shares issued by a China Company otherwise than as fully paid up shares shall be deemed to be issued upon the condition that if not paid for in full before the expiration of one week from the date upon which the final payment was due, they shall be forfeited by the Directors, and it shall be the duty of the Directors at the expiration of that period to forfeit the said shares. Notice of the forfeiture of any such shares shall forthwith be given to the registered holder.

Any shares so forfeited shall be deemed to be the property of the Company, and the Directors may sell, re-allot, or otherwise dispose of the same in such manner as they think fit. Certificates or other documents of title relating to shares forfeited under this article shall be returned to the Company.

(3) Within one month of the expiration of the time allowed for the completion of the payment of all sums due upon the shares, the Secretary of the Company shall forward to the Registrar of Companies at Shanghai a return signed by the auditor of the Company giving particulars of the shares issued, of the amounts paid thereon, of the shares in respect of which default has been made in payment of sums due, and of the shares forfeited.

(4) If shares are issued by a China Company on terms which fail to comply with the provisions of this article, or if other default is made in complying therewith, the Company, and every Director, Manager, Secretary, and other Officer, who is knowingly a party to such issue or default, shall be guilty of an offence, and shall be liable to a fine not exceeding 500 dollars for every day during which such offence continues.

(5) Where on application made it is established to the satisfaction of the Court that there has been a failure to comply with the provisions of this article through inadvertence or accidental miscalculation or from some other reasonable cause, and not from any want of good faith, the Court may, if under all the circumstances it considers it just so to do, give relief from any forfeiture or penalty which has been incurred by the applicant, or to which he is, or may be, liable upon such terms as it may think fit.

(6) The provisions of this article shall only apply to shares issued by a China Company after the date when this Order comes into effect.

14.—(1) No China Company limited by guarantee shall be allowed to operate in China without the consent of the Minister.

(2) As a condition of this consent the Minister may require that no person other than a British Subject shall be a Member of the Company, or that any Member of the Company who is not a British Subject shall deposit in Court or give security for or conform to such arrangement as the Minister shall think fit, for ensuring the payment of the amount for which he would be liable under the guarantee.

(3) If any China Company limited by guarantee operates in China without the consent of the Minister, or if any terms imposed by him as a condition of his consent are not complied with, the Company and every Director, or Manager, Secretary, and other Officer, who is knowingly a party thereto, shall be guilty of an offence, and shall be liable to a fine not exceeding 500 dollars for every day during which such offence continues.

(4) Where on application made it is established to the satisfaction of the Court that there has been a failure to comply with the provisions of this article through inadvertence or accidental miscalculation or from some other reasonable cause, and not from any want of good faith, the Court may, if under all the circumstances it considers it just so to do, give relief from any forfeiture or penalty which has been incurred by the applicant, or to which he is, or may be, liable upon such terms as it may think fit.

(5) The provisions of this article shall not apply to China Companies limited by guarantee operating in China at the date of this Order.

15.—(1) Subject to the provisions of this Order, the jurisdiction of the Court in respect of all British Companies carrying on business in China shall be exercised, so far as circumstances admit, in conformity with the provisions of the Ordinance and of the Life Insurance Companies Ordinance, except that Section 16 of the Companies Amendment Ordinance, 1913, shall not apply in China.

(2) Where reference is made or inferred in any Section of the said Ordinances to any other Ordinance of the Colony of Hongkong which does not apply within the limits of this Order, such section shall be read as though the corresponding law or enactment applicable in England were referred to therein.

(3) The duties of the Governor, or of the Governor in Council, or of the Colonial Treasurer under Sections 20, 21, 120 (4), 219, 253, and 255 of the Ordinance shall, within the limits of this Order, be exercised by the Minister, and under Sections 141 (1), 149, 185, 217, and 261 shall within the limits of this Order be exercised by the Judge.

(4) In the application of the said Ordinances "legal practitioner" is substituted for "counsel" or "solicitor" or "solicitor and counsel," and "such newspaper as the Judge may direct" is substituted for "the Gazette."

(5) All offences under the said Ordinances made punishable by fine may, if committed within the limits of this Order, be prosecuted summarily under article 48 of the Principal Order, provided that the maximum fine which can be imposed in the case of offences under the Ordinances tried summarily shall be £200 instead of £20.

16.—(1) The power of the Judge under article 119 of the Principal Order to make Rules of Court shall extend to any matter which under the Ordinance or under the Life Insurance Companies Ordinance is to be regulated by Rules.

(2) Any Rules in force at Hongkong at the date of this Order relating to matters dealt with in the said Ordinances shall, unless and until they are repealed

by Rules made under this article, apply, so far as circumstances admit, within the limits of this Order.

17. All fees prescribed by or under the Ordinance or by or under the Life Insurance Companies Ordinance which are paid to the Registrar of Companies at Shanghai shall be paid by him to the Colonial Treasurer at Hongkong.

18. Nothing in this Order shall prejudice or affect the jurisdiction of the Supreme Court over British Companies other than China Companies and Hongkong China Companies within the meaning of this Order.

19. This Order shall come into effect on the 1st day of January, 1916.

American Chamber of Commerce of China

(Temporary Office, 5 Jinkee Road, Shanghai.)

President: J. Harold Dollar.

Vice-President: W. D. Sprague.

Secretary: J. B. Powell.

Committee: H. H. Arnold, W. A. Burns, J. J. Connell, J. W. Gallagher, B. Haile, L. Jacob, J. H. McMichael, W. A. B. Nichols, B. A. Robinson, P. F. Wisner.

Russian Chamber of Commerce, Shanghai

Chairman: Count L. Jazierski.

Secretary: E. Statkiewicz.

Members: A. Drachenfels, S. Heiman, M. Morducovitch, M. Rizaeff.

CHAPTER XXVII

RIVER CONSERVANCY AND HARBOUR WORKS

WITH the establishment in December, 1913, of a National Conservancy and Irrigation Bureau, with Chang Chien, Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, as Director-General, the Chinese Government took the first steps towards systematic treatment of a problem of supreme importance to China. In the absence of good roads, rivers and waterways, with which the country is abundantly provided, have supplied in the past the main channels of transportation. These are now being supplemented by railways, but too slowly in relation to the total area of Chinese territory to affect to any great extent for the present the importance of water routes. Moreover, some of the rivers, notably the Yellow River and the Huaiho, are a continual source of devastation and national loss, on account of their liability to flood, the bursting of their banks, and changes of course. In May, 1914, Mr. H. van der Veen, a Dutch expert, was appointed consulting engineer to the National Conservancy Bureau. Lack of funds has curtailed the activities of the Bureau. It has, however, given an impetus to conservancy schemes in various parts of the country, and seeks to make all these, whether in existence before or about to be started, subordinate to a national scheme of conservancy work. Sub-bureaux have been established in a few provinces ; those in Kiangsu and Anhui have been occupied more particularly with survey work in connexion with the districts liable to floods from the Huai River (see *infra*), and useful information was supplied, as a result of these initial labours, to the Board of American Red Cross Engineers which visited the Huai River in the summer of 1914. The major schemes which the National Conservancy Bureau has on hand are connected with the Huai River, the Sikiang or West River, the Grand Canal, and the Hangchow Sea-wall. The Peking staff has also been employed to survey the Liao River and the Metropolitan Waterways, and to inspect the Yangtze River, with a view to dredging operations. Other schemes contemplated or already taken in hand by provincial authorities include: (1) the dredging of West Lake (Chekiang), at an estimated cost of $80,000, half to be borne by the Provincial Government, half by the neighbouring districts ; (2) the dredging of the Pepau River, Kueichow, at a cost of $300,000 ; (3) conservancy work in Hunan, under the direction of Wei Ching-hsiung, specially appointed for the purpose by the President ; (4) an extension of the Huangpu Conservancy Scheme (*q.v.*) above the Shanghai foreign settlements and to the upper reaches of the river; (5) the opening of four more gorges on the Upper Yangtze, at the cost of the Szechuan exchequer.

A Conservancy School has been established at Nanking.

(*a*) Huangpu Conservancy

The Huangpu River connects the system of inland lagoons south-west of Shanghai with the Yangtze-kiang, and thus with the sea. Its total drainage area is estimated at about 12,000 square miles. The river and its numerous creeks are tidal for over fifty miles, i.e. above the Sitai Lake. At Woosung, where the Huangpu flows into the Yangtze River, the rise of tide at springs is approximately 10 feet, and at neaps 8 feet above low water, ordinary spring tides, the range of neap tides being about 5 feet. At Shanghai, 14 miles from Woosung, the rise of springs is about 9 feet, and at neaps 6½ feet, the range of neap tides being 4 feet. Obstacles to navigation approaching Shanghai begin about 25 miles below Woosung, where patches of shoal water, known as the Fairy Flats, show a minimum depth of about 18 feet at low water ordinary spring tides. The other obstacles, before the inception of training works, were an Outer Bar at the confluence of the Huangpu and Yangtze, and an Inner Bar, nearly three miles farther up-stream at the lower end of Gough Island, which used to divide the Huangpu at this point into two channels. Between these two bars navigation was further impeded by a promontory, known as Pheasant Point, on the right bank, where a large shoal extending outwards considerably reduced the width of the river.

In addition to these obstacles to navigation, the tendency of the Huangpu to silt up has provided a further incentive to the foreign population of Shanghai to stipulate for a permanent Conservancy system with a view to maintaining the channel in the condition required by the growing trade of the port.

In 1876 two reports by engineers were submitted to the Consular Body of Shanghai on the subject of the Huangpu Conservancy; but no further steps were taken in the matter. Between 1889 and 1891 an ineffectual attempt was made to deepen the Inner Bar by dredging. In 1897 M. J. de Rijke, a Dutch engineer who had submitted one of the reports in 1897, was again called upon to investigate the river, and submitted the following year a second memorandum, in which he showed that the channel had deteriorated since his previous visit in 1875.

After the Boxer rising of 1900, the Conservancy of the Huangpu was made the subject of a diplomatic agreement between the foreign Powers and the Chinese Government. Annex 17 of the Peace Protocol of 1901 comprised "Regulations for the Improvement of the Course of the Huangpu" in thirty-seven sections. A Conservancy Board was to be appointed at Shanghai consisting of the Taotai, the Commissioner of Customs, two members elected by the Consular Body, two members of the General Chamber of Commerce, two members representing shipping interests, a member of the Municipal Council of the International Settlement, a member of the French Municipal Council, and an official representative of each country, the total of whose entrances and clearances in the Huangpu exceeded 200,000 tons a year. The revenues of the Board were to be derived from a tax on land and buildings, shipping dues and Customs duties, together with a contribution from the Chinese Government equal in amount to the contribution furnished by the different foreign interests.

No steps were taken to carry out the terms of this agreement. At a later date, however, the Chinese Government agreed to undertake the work of its own accord and at its own cost, subject to the proviso that, if the works were not carried out satisfactorily, the Powers might revert to the original Board as prescribed by the Peace Protocol. On September 27, 1905, a new Agreement relative to the Huangpu was signed in Peking. The Conservancy Board was to consist of the Shanghai Taotai and the Commissioner of Customs, and for the expenses of the undertaking China was to provide *Haikuan Taels* 9,200,000, in twenty annual instalments of *Hk. Tls.* 460,000. If the money should be required at an earlier period, China might obtain a loan for the necessary amount, and the interest on this was to be defrayed out of the *Hk. Tls.* 9,200,000. The engineer to be appointed to carry out the Conservancy works had to be approved of by a majority of the signatory Powers.

M. de Rijke was the engineer chosen, and work was begun in 1906. His scheme of Conservancy provided for the closing of the Ship Channel then in use to the northward and eastward of Gough Island, and the opening of Junk Channel on the other side of that island, together with the consequent elimination of the Inner Bar. The blocking of Ship Channel was completed in September, 1910, and the dredging of the new fairway, known as Astraea Channel, ceased in the same month. A training jetty, 4700 feet long, running out into the Yangtze from Woosung, was finished in October, 1910, and caused the Outer Bar practically to disappear. The result of the four years' work had been that from the anchorage outside Woosung to Shanghai there was a channel of a width of 700 feet and upwards with a minimum depth of 21 feet at average low water.

Although the Huangpu Convention provided that the sole control of the Conservancy operations should be vested in the Shanghai Taotai and Commissioner of Customs, the Viceroy of the province appointed in January, 1906, a bureau in Nanking charged with the supervision of Conservancy affairs, and in practice this bureau exercised through the Taotai a close control over the Board of which he was a member. At a later stage, Viceroy Jui Cheng was appointed High Commissioner for the Huangpu Conservancy, and at the end of 1909 this official announced his intention of closing the Conservancy works during the following year. The contracts of the majority of the existing staff terminated in 1910, and the Chinese authorities had resolved not to renew them. M. de Rijke, who had seen the completion of the main portion of his scheme, left China in November, 1910, and in the following month M. Hugo von Heidenstam, a Swedish engineer, was appointed to take charge in his stead. At the same time Conservancy matters were nominally transferred to an office in the Taotai's yamen.

To the end of 1910 the total expenditure on the Conservancy work had been, in Shanghai currency, Tls. 6,125,384, while an additional sum amounting to Tls. 415,000 was due for contracts already made. According to the conditions of the 1905 Agreement, a loan of Tls. 4,500,000 had been negotiated in 1908. The total appropriation guaranteed by the Chinese Government amounted to Tls. 10,248,000 (=*Hk. Tls.* 9,200,000). Of this sum, Tls. 2,965,972 had to be allocated to interest on the loan, which was reduced to Tls. 4,125,000 by not taking up the last instalment due in April, 1911. At the beginning of 1911, therefore, the Conservancy should have been in funds (leaving the remaining fourteen instalments of the Government's contribution to pay off the principal and interest of the loan) to the extent of over Tls. 1,000,000.

Work on the Huangpu Channel was reduced to a minimum in 1911. The new engineer devoted himself to making a careful study of the stream, only to find that silting had taken place in the middle of the Astraea Channel, the minimum depth having been reduced from 21·2 feet to 19·5 feet between October, 1910, and April, 1911, and that the entrances to the channel had become narrower, in the case of the upper entrance the 18-feet fairway having been diminished from the stipulated width of 900 feet to 625 feet.

The total expenditure for the year was returned at *Hk. Tls.* 817,965, of which *Hk. Tls.* 241,528 was for interest on loan. This sum brought the total expenditure from the beginning of Conservancy work to the end of 1911 to *Hk. Tls.* 6,943,349.

In a report issued in October, 1911, Mr. von Heidenstam estimated that Tls. 6,000,000, spread over ten years, would be required for the proper regulation of the river from Woosung to the Kiangnan Arsenal above Shanghai.

Towards the end of 1910 the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce prepared a scheme for the continuation of the Conservancy work, and this was in due course submitted by the Diplomatic Body in Peking to the Chinese Government. Counter proposals were made by the latter, but were not accepted by the representatives of the Powers. As the conditions of the Huangpu would not brook indefinite delay, it was agreed in January, 1912, that the scheme of the Shanghai Chamber of Commerce should be adopted as a temporary measure, but it was not until May 15 that the Conservancy tax on which the scheme was based came into force in Shanghai. The tax levied is 3 per cent on the Customs duties and 1½ per mille on duty-free goods. The port undertakes to provide the whole of the necessary funds and supplements the Conservancy Board, consisting of the Taotai, the Customs Commissioner and the Harbour Master, with a Consultative Committee of six members, one from each of the five leading shipping nations and one selected by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce.

Work on the channel of the Huangpu was resumed on a larger scale in July, 1912. The detailed Project, with estimates, for the continued Huangpu Regulation, issued by M. von Heidenstam in October, 1911, was adopted for execution. The first work on the programme, the cutting of the Pheasant Point, where a serious obstruction existed at the very entrance of the river, was immediately taken in hand. A contract for the dredging of four million cubic yards, whereby all the dredging at present required at Pheasant Point, the Astraea Channel, and a considerable part of the dredging off de Rijke's Point opposite Kajow will be effected, was awarded to the Netherlands Harbour Works Co., Ltd.

A long parallel dam at the eastern side of the mouth, which together with the Woosung Jetty trains the river over the former Outer Bar, as well as certain cribworks in the lower river were built and finally completed, and several valuable foreshore reclaimings made.

At the end of 1913 the work stood as follows:—

Conservancy Work in 1913

All training-dam work is finished from the mouth upwards as far as Black Point. Training by means of parallel dams is going on in the section nearest above Black Point. The dredging of Pheasant Point and lower and middle Astraea Channel is nearly finished and promises well for the future. Dredging is going on at de Rijke's Point and opposite Cosmopolitan Dock. Since July, 1912, in all 3,300,000 cubic yards have been dredged. An elaborate hydrometric survey is being carried on so as to systematize the results achieved.

The channel shows a depth of 24 feet at ordinary low water over a width of more than 600 feet all through from Woosung to Shanghai.

The new Conservancy Tax levied since 15th May, 1912, has yielded on an average about Tls. 42,000 monthly, i.e. at the rate of about half a million Taels per year.

Conservancy Work in 1914 (Report of Conservancy Board)

During 1914 conservancy work progressed steadily along the lines of the project of 1911, although on account of the war and the thereby reduced income of the Board certain items on the work programme were delayed or postponed. The most important work during the year was the dredging at Pheasant Point, Dr. Rijke's Point, opposite Cosmopolitan Dock and Pootung Point. Contract No. 4 with the Dredging Company for four million yards was concluded in March, 1914, and followed by an extension contract of nearly half a million cubic yards, which was brought to a close in November, 1914. Only at Pheasant Point can the work be said to have been completed for the present, while in all other places dredging has to be continued as soon as feasible. The new training works, started in 1913, on the left bank of the reach between Black Point and Cosmopolitan Dock, were brought up to low-water level and completed. The fairway has generally maintained itself to the depth and width attained during 1913. It has been further widened by dredging at Dr. Rijke's Point and at Pootung Point. A depth of 24 feet is now available at low water over a width of at least 400 feet from the Yangtze up to the harbour (Shanghai) where in the crossing off Wayside Wharf only 22–23 feet can be counted upon. (Vessels with a 28-foot draught pass in and out of the harbour quite safely, the Harbour Master reports.) The Conservancy Tax during 1914 totalled Tls. 448,753.53 as compared with Tls 508,407.74 during 1913.

The work of dredging the Huangpu River above the Shanghai Foreign Settlements just off the Nantao Bund was begun in 1915 at the expense of the Chinese City authorities. An agreement was made with the Nantao Municipal Tax Bureau to dredge close up to the readjusted normal line, inside which a stretch of new bunding was to be constructed. A certain area was also to be reclaimed. Further dredging was to be undertaken in the prefectures of Soochow, Sunkiang, and Taitsang, the cost being defrayed by a surtax imposed by the Prefect of Shanghai, under the orders of the Governor of Kiangsu.

Memorandum regarding the Future Conservancy of the Huangpu (1912)

The following is the text of the Memorandum drawn up by the Shanghai General Chamber of Commerce regarding the Conservancy of the Huangpu. This scheme, with the exception of the substitution of the Harbour Master instead of the Coast Inspector as the third member of the Board, has been adopted "as a temporary measure":—

1.—The Huangpu Conservancy Board of Administration, to be known shortly as the Conservancy Board, shall consist of the Shanghai Taotai, the Shanghai Customs Commissioner, and the Coast Inspector.

2.—The authority with which the Conservancy Board is invested is delegated to it by the Imperial Chinese Government; and, consequently, the Board is in no way subordinate to the provincial authorities. The several members of the Board have, as such, equal authority, and the opinion of the majority is to be determinative.

3.—The Board shall have entire charge of the finances connected with Conservancy matters. In this connection:—

(*a*) The original annual Government grant of Taels 460,000 shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid to the Board's accounts, in whatever bank or banks such accounts may be kept, and the Board will take charge of the existing Conservancy loan account, and will provide for the payment of the principal and interest as they fall due.

(*b*) All Conservancy funds, in whosoever's hands, shall, within 30 days of the promulgation of this Agreement, be paid to the Conservancy Board account.

(*c*) Any new annual Government grant that may be made shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid in full to the Conservancy Board's account.

(*d*) The Conservancy tax on imports and exports, referred to in Article 4, shall be collected by the Commissioner of Customs, and shall periodically, on fixed dates, be paid to the Conservancy Board's account.

(*e*) The Conservancy Board will disburse Conservancy funds for the execution of the necessary works and for the maintenance of staff and office at its discretion. Cheques will be cashed on the signatures of any two members.

4.—The several Chambers of Commerce and Associations representing the commercial interests of Shanghai, having agreed to the raising of a tax for Conservancy purposes, consisting of 3 per cent of the Customs duties and, in the case of duty-free goods, of 1½ per mille of value, the tax shall be dealt with, as provided for in Article 3 (*d*), as soon as such formalities as are necessary to regularize it have been completed and notified to the Conservancy Board by the Ministers.

> NOTE.—This tax is based generally on the figures given in Mr. Commissioner Merrill's Memorandum of the 15th April, 1910, in order to provide the Hk. Taels 300,000 which is Mr. Merrill's estimate of the sum necessary for the modest programme set forth therein.

5.—For all contracts in connection with the works, and for the purchase of material or machinery, etc., public tenders will be invited, and the tender offering the most advantageous conditions accepted.

6.—The Conservancy Board shall appoint, at its discretion, and shall control, the staff necessary for the work to be effected, including the Secretary and Engineer-in-Chief.

7.—The general jurisdiction of the Conservancy Board extends over the Huangpu from the Yangtsze to its tidal limit, that is to say, within those limits—between the high-water lines—no operation which may possibly affect the regimen of the river shall be undertaken without the Board's consent, nor without such consent shall pontoons or hulks connected to the shore be established.

All applications for the Board's consent for such works, etc., on the Huangpu below the upper harbour limit, shall be made to the Harbour Master and be replied to by him as heretofore.

The control of the River Police, of sanitary arrangements, of aids to navigation and of pilotage, remain as heretofore in the hands of the Imperial Maritime Customs.

8.—Under the Conservancy agreement of 1905 provision that the Conservancy funds benefit by the sale of Crown lands, in so far as such are rendered justifiable by the Conservancy scheme, was left undefined. During the operation of that agreement large quantities of Crown lands, with the Conservancy normal line as a boundary, have been sold by the Shenko Office, by which the Conservancy funds should have, but have not, benefited.

This matter needs settlement, but is too involved to be dealt with herein. It is therefore decided that, subsequent to the promulgation of this agreement, this matter be jointly investigated by the Taotai and the Consular Body as a preliminary to the addition of a supplementary article to this agreement.

9.—The duties of the Conservancy Board are:—

(1) At an early date to come to a conclusion in consultation with the Engineer-in-Charge concerning:—

- (*a*) What should be the ultimate aim of Conservancy works;
- (*b*) What measures are necessary to secure that end;
- (*c*) What is the estimated cost of such measures.

(2) To maintain existing Conservancy works in effective condition, including the construction of such new works as are found necessary for that purpose.

(3) To provide and maintain a channel from the Yangtsze to Shanghai, having, as far as circumstances and funds permit, a least depth of 20 feet at mean low water of spring tides over a least width of 900 feet.

(4) To undertake such additional new works as may from time to time be advisable for the maintenance and improvement of the regimen of the river, when funds are available.

(5) To co-operate with the riparian owners in respect to dredging operations to secure improved wharfage facilities. Such co-operation to take the form of dredging at reasonable rates.

10.—(1) The Huangpu Conservancy Consultative Board, to be known shortly as the Consultative Board, shall consist of:—

(*a*) Five members appointed as follows:—The several Ministers at Peking of the five nations having the largest tonnage entering and clearing at Shanghai, shall each determine at his discretion the means by which one member of his nationality shall be selected, and the Consuls-General at Shanghai concerned shall notify the Conservancy Board of the selection made and of any subsequent changes.

(*b*) One member appointed by the Chinese Chamber of Commerce. The Secretary will serve both Boards.

(2) The primary functions of the Consultative Board will be to watch Conservancy proceedings on behalf of the commercial interests of Shanghai, and to make such representations to the Conservancy Board as it thinks proper.

To this end the Consultative Board shall be supplied with full information concerning all projected works, concerning progress of current works, and concerning finance. It will also be consulted in regard to the appointment of the Engineer-in-Charge.

(3) In the event of the Consultative Board considering that its representations are insufficiently attended to and that the commercial interests of the port are thereby threatened, it will refer the matter to a Consular Committee, consisting of the Consuls-General of the nations referred to in Article 10 (1). If the Consular Committee is unable to arrange matters to their satisfaction with the Conservancy Board, they will refer the question at issue to their respective Ministers for diplomatic settlement.

11.—The object of the existence of the two Boards is as follows:—

(*a*) To provide that the Conservancy Board, in view of its executive nature, be small in order to expedite business.

(*b*) To provide that members of the Conservancy Board be officials of the Chinese Government in view of the extensive jurisdiction, namely, to the head of tidal influence, which it is desirable the Conservancy Board should have.

(*c*) To provide, nevertheless, that the commercial interests of the port be effectively represented.

It is considered that the representation provided will be more usefully effective than would be the case were the representatives of commercial interests on the Conservancy Board.

(*b*) Haiho Conservancy

By the terms of Article XI of the Peace Protocol of 1901 the Chinese Government undertook to improve the condition of the Haiho (Peiho), the river that connects Tientsin, forty-seven miles distant, with the Gulf of Pechihli, as well as that of the Huangpu River. To this end it agreed to be represented on the International Commission charged with the supervision of the Haiho Conservancy and to contribute a sum of *Hk. Tls.* 60,000 every year towards the cost of the operations. The Haiho River Commission is composed of representatives of the nine Concessions, or the respective Consuls, a representative of the Consular Body, the Customs Taotai, the Commissioner of Customs and representatives of the commerce and shipping of the port. But by an agreement arrived at in 1908, its powers are delegated to an executive body known as the Conservancy Board, consisting of a representative of the Consular Body, the Customs Taotai and the Commissioner of Customs. Revenue is provided by a tax of 4 per cent of the Customs duties and a shipping tax of 1 mace ($\frac{1}{6}$th of a Tael) per ton, or on ships not passing the bar at Taku of $\frac{1}{2}$ mace per ton, or 1 mace per ton on all cargo discharged or loaded. Part of the Conservancy scheme which is gradually being carried out provides for the cutting of a straighter course for the river, which has already been shortened by nine miles. In order to improve the channel over the Taku Bar, raking has been resorted to during the period when the river is open to navigation. The results proved satisfactory, as far as they went, the number of vessels drawing from 12 feet 6 inches to 13 feet and 13 feet or over that reached the Tientsin Bund being, respectively, 10 and 3 in 1909, 26 and 9 in 1910, 37 and 20 in 1911. Fewer vessels grounded each year between Taku and Tientsin than formerly. In September, 1912, however, the natural tendencies adverse to the maintenance of the raked channel had developed to such an extent that the channel became all but blotted out by the advancing North Bank Spit. In another direction a natural deepening was taking place, and the raked channel was abandoned on September 20. Raking in this channel was continued in 1913 until the arrival of a suction dredger. This dredger, the *Chunghua*, arrived from Holland on March 18, 1914, and by the end of the year the channel across the bar had been deepened by from two to three feet, while the river at its shallow parts was deepened nearly two feet. On July 23, 1914, a ship drawing 14 ft. 8 inches on even keel reached Tientsin, the deepest draught that, up to that date, had been able to go up the river. In December, 1914, a third ice-breaker was added to the two obtained during 1913 (all three built at Shanghai) and enabled the river to be kept open until the end of the year. See also (*f*) Conservancy in Chihli.

(*c*) Huaiho Conservancy

Some conservancy work was carried out by the provincial authorities in the north of Anhui during 1915. Impressed labour was employed, every five families having to supply one workman. In this way 45,000 men were employed.

On January 30, 1914, the Chinese Government entered into an agreement with the American Red Cross Society in virtue of which the latter is empowered to raise a loan of £4,000,000 for the purpose of undertaking conservancy work in the Huai River region in the provinces of Anhui and Kiangsu. The loan, which is to be issued at 5 per cent, will be secured on the lands to be reclaimed and on the taxes, which will increase in the area to be protected from periodic floods under the new scheme, and also on the navigation dues of the Grand Canal. The conservancy work may be carried out on the contract system by contractors nominated by the Society, which will also have the right of nominating the engineer-in-chief, who is to direct the conservancy work over an extensive region, part of which is now permanently flooded, and the remainder liable to inundations which cause disastrous famines. Owing to the European War, the option in connexion with this loan, which expired in January, 1915, was extended for a further period. Survey work was in operation in 1918.

(*d*) Liao River

Schemes for the conservancy of the Liao River, above and below Newchwang, have been under discussion since 1909, and large sums have been spent on the work. Arrangements were made in July, 1911, for the improvement of the Liao Bar, but the agreement was never ratified, and conservancy work on the lower river came to a standstill. On the Upper Liao a weir and dam were constructed across the Shuangt'ai'tzu branch, in which the water of the Liao was being diverted, but in October, 1912, these works were largely destroyed by a riotous crowd. In 1913 provincial opposition continued to prevent the adoption of any comprehensive scheme for dealing with the work. Finally, after four years' negotiations, an agreement was drawn up between the Superintendent of the Customs at Newchwang (representing the Government of the Three Eastern Provinces) and the Consular Body at Newchwang on the subject of the Liao River Conservancy, and received the assent of the Diplomatic Corps on March 18, 1914. The President's sanction was given on July 1, and the authorized surtaxes began to be collected on August 23. Work was begun in May, 1916, under the direction of Mr. W. R. Hughes, C.E., as engineer-in-chief. The plans included dredging the bar at the mouth of the Liao River, improvement of the channel from the mouth to Newchwang Harbour, closing the Junk channel, and the protection and strengthening of the strip of land between Duck Island and the lower limit of the harbour, in order to prevent a possible breach by the river.

(*e*) West River, Kuantung Province

The West River Valley with the delta in which Canton is situated was visited by a disastrous flood in 1914, and for the first time practical steps were taken to deal with the question of conservancy in the province of Kuangtang. A Board of Conservancy Works was appointed, under Admiral Tan Hsia-heng as Director-General, and the Huangpu Conservancy Board was invited to investigate and to draw up a report on the river. Another serious flood followed in 1915. In his memorandum the investigating engineer, Mr. H. von Heidenstam, recommended the appointment of a special officer to carry out a detailed survey of the West River. This work was undertaken by Captain G. W. Olivecrona, who devoted a year to the examination—June, 1915, to June, 1916. He formed the opinion that protection could be attained by confining the floods within the limit of the present dyke system (which had been in existence for 800 years, but had not been kept in adequate repair), provided the barriers were partly reconstructed and properly maintained to a suitable elevation. The scheme of reconstruction recommended comprised one system of primary and another of secondary dykes, with gates and sluiceways. A rough estimate gave the cost of the improvements immediately contemplated—the reconstruction of the dykes on the West River between certain points and of those on certain sections of the North River (above and below Sancshui)—at $11,370,000, Hong-Kong currency, to be spread over six years. This amount, it was held, would suffice for about one-third of the total work required.

In a later report Captain Olivecrona submitted a scheme for the improvement of the Canton River, which aimed at the creation of a channel of a minimum depth of 4·9 meters (16 feet) below neap low-water, with a bottom width at this depth of 656 feet. By restricting the width of the channel and by partly closing the tributaries and branch channels it is expected that a self-maintaining channel would be formed from Canton Harbour to the sea. The cost was estimated at $2,817,000 Hong-Kong currency.

(*f*) Conservancy in Chihli

In 1918, as a result of the disastrous floods in Chihli province in the previous year, a Conservancy Commission for Chihli was appointed under Mr. Hsiung Hsi-ling for the improvement of the Chihli waterways. Four members of the Commission are foreigners. The five most important waterways in Chihli are the Peiyuanho, Yungtingho, Tachingho, Dzeyaho, and Yuho, draining together a basin of 70,000 square miles, of which about 50,000 square miles are mountainous. For all these rivers, which are liable to floods in the rainy season, there is only one outlet, the Haiho, with a maximum capacity of 30,000 cubic feet per second. Each tributary brings down more water than this: when in flood the Yungtingho six times as much. The measures to which the Commission were to give immediate attention were set forth as follows: (1) The Mumudun cutting, intended to make possible the diversion, when advisable, of part of the waters of the Peiyuaho into the Peiho. (2) The Cathedral cutting, intended to straighten out the river at Tientsin near the point where the

Peiho becomes the Haiho. (3) The rectification of the channel of the Grand Canal where it debouches into the Haiho. (4) The construction of a strong embankment to surround the whole of Tientsin. (5) A complete survey of Chihli province.

HARBOUR WORKS

Hongkong Harbour

Although Hongkong is one of the greatest shipping ports of the world, little or nothing has been done in the past to improve the natural advantages of the harbour. The decision of the Hongkong and Kowloon Wharf and Godown Company to construct a new wharf for the accommodation of vessels up to 650 feet in length and of a corresponding draught, led to the discovery that the approaches to the property would not admit of the berthing of vessels of over 28 feet draught. The Colonial Government undertook to dredge two berths alongside the proposed wharf to a depth of 30 feet at lowest spring-tide, and to dredge an area of 231,600 square yards as an approach. In 1915 the Legislative Council appropriated a sum of money for this work.

It is the intention of the Hongkong Government to reclaim a portion of the harbour along Praya East, but the work has been delayed by the European War.

Chefoo Harbour

Work on the improvement of Chefoo Harbour was started in August, 1915, by the Netherlands Harbour Works Company. The contract is for *Hk. Tls.* 2,677,000, this sum to be repaid in twenty-two years. The works to be executed, which were to be completed within four years, comprise:—

(*a*) An eastern breakwater off Tower Hill.
(*b*) A western mole with a quay wall on the northern part of it.
(*c*) Dredging in the shelter formed by the breakwater and the mole.

The Maritime Customs will erect three lighthouses, one at each end of the breakwater and one at the end of the mole. The breakwater will be about 2600 feet long, the jetty connecting the breakwater with the land about 6000 feet, and the quay wall 600 feet. It is expected that the breakwater will be completed by the middle of 1919.

The Chinese Government agreed to a monthly appropriation from the Customs Revenue to the Chefoo Harbour Improvement Commission of *Tls.* 111,400 for a period of nineteen months from January 1, 1918.

Foochow Port

In 1918 a scheme was submitted for the improvement of the Min River from Nantai to Pagoda Anchorage, which has hitherto been accessible only to small vessels of from 6 to 8 feet draught. It is hoped to create a channel of a depth of 10 feet at ordinary low water over a width of at least 300 feet. The cost was estimated at $900,000, to be spread over three years.

CHAPTER XXVIII

OPIUM[1]

THE poppy has been known in China for twelve centuries and its medicinal use for nine centuries. Opium for medicinal purposes was first extracted from the capsule of the flower about four centuries ago, but it was not until the middle of the seventeenth century that the practice of mixing the opium with tobacco for smoking purposes was introduced into China. The habit was indulged in by the Dutch in Java, and by them taken to Formosa, whence it spread to Amoy and the mainland generally. There is no record to show when opium was first smoked by itself, but it is thought to have originated about the end of the eighteenth century. Foreign opium was first introduced by the Portuguese from Goa at the beginning of the eighteenth century. In 1729, when the foreign import was 200 chests, the Emperor Yung Ching issued the first anti-opium edict, enacting severe penalties on the sale of opium and the opening of opium-smoking divans. The importation, however, continued to increase, and by 1790 it amounted to over 4000 chests annually. In 1796 opium smoking was again prohibited, and in 1800 the importation of foreign opium was once more declared illegal. Opium was now contraband, but the fact had no effect on the quantity introduced into the country, which rose to 5000 chests in 1820, 16,877 chests in 1830, 20,619 chests in 1838, and to 70,000 chests in 1858. The opium question was not mentioned in the Treaty of Nanking, 1842, but in 1858 by the Rules of Trade that were drawn up as a supplement to the Treaty of Tientsin, traffic in opium was legalized by China and a tariff rate of Hk. Tls. 30 per picul was authorized. In the Chefoo Agreement Clause 3 of Section III read :—

> "On opium, Sir Thomas Wade will move his Government to sanction an arrangement different from that affecting other imports. British merchants, when opium is brought into port, will be obliged to have it taken cognizance of by the Customs, and deposited in bond, either in a warehouse or a receiving hulk, until such time as there is a sale for it. The importer will then pay the tariff duty upon it, and the purchasers the likin, in order to the prevention of the evasion of the duty. The amount of likin to be collected will be decided by the different Provincial Governments, according to the circumstances of each."

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[1] The "Memorandum on Opium" presented to the International Opium Commission, February, 1909, is the general authority for the historical remarks and statistics in this summary. The Memorandum appears to have been largely indebted to Mr. H. B. Morse's *Trade and Administration of the Chinese Empire*. The historical aspect of the opium question is also fully dealt with in Mr. H. B. Morse's *The International Relations of the Chinese Empire*.

The subject was more fully dealt with in the additional article to the Chefoo Agreement, signed in London, July 18, 1885, which superseded the clause quoted above. By this later undertaking opium was to be deposited in bond as before, and was not to be removed until a tariff duty of Tls. 30 per chest of 100 catties and a likin duty of Tls. 80 per chest had been paid to the Customs. Repacking in bond was allowed, and opium provided with the Customs certificate was to be free from the imposition of any further tax or duty whilst in transport in the interior, in Chinese hands. When such certificated packages were opened, they were "not to be subjected to any tax or contribution, direct or indirect, other than or in excess of such tax or contribution as is or may hereafter be levied on native opium."

This tax of Hk. Tls. 110 per picul on foreign opium was levied from 1858 until 1911, when the British Government agreed to an enhanced tax of Hk. Tls. 350. (See below.)

The evils of opium smoking in China have been patent to most observers for many years, and continuous attempts have been made by foreign missionaries to arouse public opinion in the country against the habit. Here and there Chinese officials have co-operated. At the same time the British House of Commons has also affirmed its opinion that the Indo-Chinese opium trade was indefensible. In 1906 an anti-opium memorial was presented to the Chinese Emperor, and on September 20 of the same year an Imperial Edict was issued ordering the abolition of opium smoking within a limit of ten years. The Government Council (Chengwuchu) was enjoined at the same time "to consider measures about the future strict prohibition of opium smoking and of the planting of the poppy throughout the Empire."

In accordance with this command the Government Council drafted regulations,[1] which were promulgated in November, 1906.

In the year 1907 two other opium Edicts were issued.

By an Agreement between the Indian Government and China, entered into at the end of 1907, the former undertook to reduce the amount of opium exported from India by 5100 chests per annum, beginning from January 1, 1908, for a period of three years, provided China reduced the production of native opium in the same ratio. At this time India was exporting 67,000 chests of opium, of which 51,000 chests were imported into China, while the remainder went to the Straits Settlements, Borneo, Siam and elsewhere. In the year 1908, in accordance with the Agreement, India exported 61,900 chests.

Memorials and Edicts continued to be issued in China during 1908, but such efforts as were made to stamp out the opium growing and opium smoking met with varying success.

On February 1, 1909, an International Opium Commission, convened on the initiative of the United States Government, met at Shanghai. The Powers represented were; the United States (conveners; Bishop C. H. Brent, President of the Commission), Austria-Hungary, China, France, Germany, Great Britain, Japan, Netherlands, Persia, Portugal, Russia, Siam.

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[1] These regulations were printed in full in the 1913 edition.

The following Resolutions were adopted by the Commission, to be submitted to the respective Governments represented :—

Be it resolved:—

1. That the International Opium Commission recognizes the unswerving sincerity of the Government of China in their efforts to eradicate the production and consumption of opium throughout the Empire; the increasing body of public opinion among their own subjects by which those efforts are being supported; and the real, though unequal, progress already made in a task which is one of the greatest magnitude.
2. That in view of the action taken by the Government of China in suppressing the practice of opium smoking, and by other Governments to the same end, the International Opium Commission recommends that each Delegation concerned move its own Government to take measures for the gradual suppression of the practice of opium smoking in its own territories and possessions, with due regard to the varying circumstances of each country concerned.
3. That the International Opium Commission finds that the use of opium in any form otherwise than for medical purposes is held by almost every participating country to be a matter for prohibition or for careful regulation; and that each country in the administration of its system of regulation purports to be aiming, as opportunity offers, at progressively increasing stringency. In recording these conclusions the International Opium Commission recognizes the wide variations between the conditions prevailing in the different countries, but it would urge on the attention of the Governments concerned the desirability of a re-examination of their systems of regulation in the light of the experience of other countries dealing with the same problem.
4. That the International Opium Commission finds that each Government represented has strict laws which are aimed directly or indirectly to prevent the smuggling of opium, its alkaloids, derivatives and preparations into their territories: in the judgment of the International Opium Commission it is also the duty of countries to adopt reasonable measures to prevent at ports of departure the shipment of opium, its alkaloids, derivatives and preparations to any country which prohibits the entry of any opium, its alkaloids, derivatives and preparations.
5. That the International Opium Commission finds that the unrestricted manufacture, sale and distribution of morphine already constitute a grave danger, and that the morphine habit shows sign of spreading; the International Opium Commission, therefore, desires to urge strongly on all Governments that it is highly important that drastic measures should be taken by each Government in its own territories and possessions to control the manufacture, sale and distribution of this drug, and also of such other derivatives of opium as may appear on scientific inquiry to be liable to similar abuse and productive of like ill effects.
6. That as the International Opium Commission is not constituted in such a manner as to permit the investigation from a scientific point of

view of anti-opium remedies and of the properties and effects of opium and its products, but deems such investigation to be of the highest importance, the International Opium Commission desires that each Delegation shall recommend this branch of the subject to its own Government for such action as that Government may think necessary.

7. That the International Opium Commission strongly urges all Governments possessing Concessions or Settlements in China, which have not yet taken effective action towards the closing of opium divans in the said Concessions and Settlements, to take steps to that end, as soon as they may deem it possible, on the lines already adopted by several Governments.

8. That the International Opium Commission recommends strongly that each Delegation move its Government to enter into negotiations with the Chinese with a view to effective and prompt measures being taken in the various foreign Concessions and Settlements in China for the prohibition of the trade and manufacture of such anti-opium remedies as contain opium or its derivatives.

9. That the International Opium Commission recommends that each Delegation move its Government to apply its pharmacy laws to its subjects in the Consular districts, Concessions and Settlements in China.

The agitation in China against opium continued, and the problem was discussed in the provincial assemblies and, amid considerable popular excitement, in the National Assembly in Peking during the autumn session of 1910. Meanwhile the Missionary Conference, held at Edinburgh in 1910, had passed an emphatic resolution on the subject, and a day of humiliation and prayer had been decreed for October 24, the fiftieth anniversary of the ratification of the Treaty of Tientsin (October 24, 1860), by which the opium trade had first been legalized.

As the time approached for the termination of the three years' Agreement of 1907 between the Indian and Chinese Governments, the question of a further understanding between the two Governments was raised by China. The Indian Administration undertook to secure the complete cessation of her opium trade at the end of seven years (1917), but the Chinese Government, pressed from within, desired a speedier termination of the traffic in imported opium. As no statistics or reliable information regarding the suppression of the cultivation of the poppy in China were available, Sir Alexander Hosie, of H.M.'s Consular Service, was commissioned to make a tour of investigation through certain parts of China. His inquiries tended to show that no opium was being grown in the provinces of Shansi and Szechuan, while there had been a reduction in the area under poppy cultivation of 30 per cent in Shensi, 25 per cent in Kansu, 70 per cent in Kueichow and 75 per cent in Yunnan.

The negotiations opened between the Chinese and British Governments in 1910 were resumed early in 1911, and on May 8, 1911, the following Agreement was signed in Peking :—

Agreement between the United Kingdom and China relating to Opium

Under the arrangement concluded between His Majesty's Government and the Chinese Government three years ago, His Majesty's Government undertook that, if during the period of three years from the 1st day of January, 1908, the Chinese Government should duly carry out the arrangement on their part for reducing the production and consumption of opium in China, they would continue in the same proportion of 10 per cent the annual diminution of the export of opium from India until the completion of the full period of ten years in 1917.

His Majesty's Government, recognizing the sincerity of the Chinese Government and their pronounced success in diminishing the production of opium in China during the past three years, are prepared to continue the arrangement of 1907 for the unexpired period of seven years on the following conditions:—

ARTICLE 1.—From the 1st day of January, 1911, China shall diminish annually for seven years the production of opium in China in the same proportion as the annual export from India is diminished in accordance with the terms of this agreement and of the annex appended hereto until total extinction in 1917.

ARTICLE 2.—The Chinese Government have adopted a most rigorous policy for prohibiting the production, the transport and the smoking of native opium, and His Majesty's Government have expressed their agreement therewith and willingness to give every assistance. With a view to facilitating the continuance of this work, His Majesty's Government agree that the export of opium from India to China shall cease in less than seven years if clear proof is given of the complete absence of production of native opium in China.

ARTICLE 3.—His Majesty's Government further agree that Indian opium shall not be conveyed into any province in China which can establish by clear evidence that it has effectively suppressed the cultivation and import of native opium.

It is understood, however, that the closing of the ports of Canton and Shanghai to the import of Indian opium shall not take effect except as the final step on the part of the Chinese Government for the completion of the above measure.

ARTICLE 4.—During the period of this agreement it shall be permissible for His Majesty's Government to obtain continuous evidence of the diminution of cultivation by local inquiries and investigation conducted by one or more British officials, accompanied, if the Chinese Government so desire, by a Chinese official. Their decision as to the extent of cultivation shall be accepted by both parties to this agreement.

During the above period one or more British officials shall be given facilities for reporting on the taxation and trade restrictions on opium away from the treaty ports.

ARTICLE 5.—By the arrangement of 1907, His Majesty's Government agreed to the dispatch by China of an official to India to watch the opium sales on condition that such official would have no power of interference. His Majesty's Government further agree that the official so dispatched may be present at the packing of opium on the same condition.

ARTICLE 6.—The Chinese Government undertake to lay a uniform tax on all opium grown in the Chinese Empire. His Majesty's Government consent to increase the present consolidated import duty on Indian opium to Tls. 350 per chest of 100 catties, such increase to take effect as soon as the Chinese Government levy an equivalent excise tax on all native opium.

ARTICLE 7.—On confirmation of this agreement, and beginning with the collection of the new rate of consolidated import duty, China will at once cause to be withdrawn all restrictions placed by the Provincial authorities on the wholesale trade in Indian opium, such as those recently imposed at Canton, and elsewhere, and also all taxation on the wholesale trade other than the consolidated import duty, and no such restrictions or taxation shall be again imposed so long as the Additional Article to the Chefoo Agreement remains as at present in force.

It is also understood that Indian raw opium, having paid the consolidated import duty, shall be exempt from any further taxation whatsoever in the port of import.

Should the conditions contained in the above two clauses not be duly observed, His Majesty's Government shall be at liberty to suspend or terminate this agreement at any time.

The foregoing stipulations shall not derogate in any manner from the force of the laws already published or hereafter to be published by the Chinese Government to suppress the smoking of opium and to regulate the retail trade in the drug in general.

ARTICLE 8.—With a view to assisting China in the suppression of opium, His Majesty's Government undertake that from the year 1911 the Government of India will issue an export permit with a consecutive number for each chest of Indian opium declared for shipment to or for consumption in China.

During the year 1911 the number of permits so issued shall not exceed 30,600, and shall be progressively reduced annually by 5100 during the remaining six years ending 1917.

A copy of each permit so issued shall before shipment of opium declared for shipment to or for consumption in China be handed to the Chinese official for transmission to his Government or to the Customs authorities in China.

His Majesty's Government undertake that each chest of opium, for which such permit has been granted, shall be sealed by an official deputed by the Indian Government, in the presence of the Chinese official if so requested.

The Chinese Government undertake that chests of opium so sealed and accompanied by such permits may be imported into any treaty port of China without let or hindrance, if such seals remain unbroken.

ARTICLE 9.—Should it appear on subsequent experience desirable at any time during the unexpired period of seven years to modify this agreement or any part thereof, it may be revised by mutual consent of the two high contracting parties.

ARTICLE 10.—This agreement shall come into force on the date of signature.

In witness whereof the undersigned, duly authorized thereto by their respective Governments, have signed the same and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Peking in quadruplicate (four in English and four in Chinese) this 8th day of May in the year 1911, being the 10th day of the 4th month of the 3rd year of Hsüan T'ung.

(L.S.) J. N. JORDAN.
(Signed in Chinese characters)
(L.S.) TSOU CHIA-LAI.

ANNEX.—On the date of the signature of the agreement a list shall be taken by the Commissioners of Customs, acting in concert with the colonial and consular officials, of all uncertificated Indian opium in bond at the treaty ports, and of all uncertificated Indian opium in stock in Hongkong which is *bona fide* intended for the Chinese market, and all such opium shall be marked with labels, and on payment of 110 taels consolidated import duty, shall be entitled to the same treaty rights and privileges in China as certificated opium.

Opium so marked and in stock in Hongkong, must be exported to a Chinese port within seven days of the signature of the agreement.

All other uncertificated Indian opium shall, for a period of two months from the date of the signature of the agreement, be landed at the ports of Shanghai and Canton only, and at the expiration of this period all treaty ports shall be closed to uncertificated opium, provided the Chinese Government have obtained the consent of the other treaty Powers.

The Imperial Maritime Customs shall keep a return of all uncertificated Indian opium landed at Shanghai and Canton during this period of two months, other than opium marked and labelled as provided above, and such opium shall pay the new rate of consolidated import duty, and shall not be re-exported in bond to other treaty ports.

In addition to the annual reduction of 5100 chests already agreed upon, His Majesty's Government agree further to reduce the import of Indian opium during each of the years 1912, 1913, and 1914 by an amount equal to one-third of the total ascertained amount of the uncertificated Indian opium in bond in Chinese treaty ports and in stock in Hongkong on the date of signature, plus one-third of the amount of uncertificated Indian opium landed during the ensuing two months at Shanghai and Canton.

Done at Peking this 8th day of May in the year 1911, being the 10th day of the 4th month of the 3rd year of Hsüan T'ung.

(L.S.) J. N. JORDAN.
(Signed in Chinese characters)
(L.S.) TSOU CHIA-LAI.

On the same day the following Notes were exchanged between His Majesty's Minister and the Chinese Government:—

Sir J. Jordan to Prince Ch'ing.

Peking, *May* 8, 1911.

YOUR HIGHNESS,

With reference to the Opium Agreement, signed this day, and the inquiry which your Highness's Board addressed to me regarding the taxation to be imposed on certificated opium, I have the honour to state that certificated opium removed from bond at the treaty ports or imported into China after the signature of the agreement will be liable to the new duty of 350 taels per chest of 100 catties.

I avail, etc.,
J. N. JORDAN.

Prince Ch'ing to Sir J. Jordan.
(Translation.)

Peking, *May* 8, 1911.

SIR,

With reference to the statement in the 6th Article of the Opium Agreement which has been signed to-day to the effect that the Chinese Government will levy a uniform excise tax on all native opium, I have the honour to inform your Excellency that the Ministry of Finance has now decided to levy a tax of Tls. 230 on every 100 catties of native opium, which is equivalent to the increased rate of duty on Indian opium, such tax to take effect at the same time as the new duty on Indian opium.

I avail, etc.,
PRINCE CH'ING.

From September 1, 1911, uncertificated Indian opium, other than the amount requisite for the needs of the opium farmer by the terms of his contract, was forbidden entry into Hongkong, on transhipment in Colonial waters. Previously uncertificated opium, costing in India half the amount of certificated opium, had entered Hongkong with a view to being smuggled subsequently into China.

From September 11, 1911, the import of Indian opium into Manchuria, Shansi and Szechuan was prohibited, in accordance with Article 3 of the above agreement.

The import of Turkish and Persian opium into China was prohibited by the Chinese Government from January 1, 1912.

THE REPUBLIC AND OPIUM

The Revolution proved a serious set-back to the cause of opium suppression. In a number of provinces where poppy cultivation had previously been stamped out or was rapidly disappearing the plant reappeared, sometimes under official encouragement. The Republican Government, however, adopted the same attitude towards the opium question as its predecessor, and endeavoured to enforce the regulations against opium smoking and the cultivation of the poppy. Its efforts were not invariably successful. But while a large opium crop was being harvested in many parts of China, the foreign opium trade was systematically obstructed. On September 16 seven chests of Malwa opium were seized at Anking by the Military Governor's orders and were publicly burnt. After making strong representations on the subject, the British Consul-General at Shanghai proceeded to Anking on a British man-of-war for a personal discussion with the Governor, and as a result of his report a claim for compensation was lodged by the British Government. In Shanghai the obstruction placed in the way of the trade led to the accumulation of stocks of Indian opium of a value of £10,000,000. The matter was referred by the Consular Body at that port to the Diplomatic Corps in Peking, and on December 15 the British Minister "warned the Chinese Government that, unless unequivocal assurances were immediately forthcoming that it was the intention of China to observe the Agreement (of May, 1911), he would be compelled to advise his Government that remonstrances were ineffective." A Presidential Mandate issued on December 25, 1912, dealt with the subject of opium, but without offering a direct reply to the representations made by the British Minister.

The latter part of 1912 and the first few months of 1913 witnessed a crisis in the Indian opium trade. The conditions under which this trade continued are set forth in the Anglo-Chinese Agreement of 1911 and—it is claimed by the British authorities—by the circular dispatch[1] circulated by the old Waiwupu to the Governors of the Provinces, instructing them how the agreement was to be applied.

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[1] *Telegram circulated by the Waiwupu to the Viceroys of Min Che, Liang Kiang, Hukuang and Liang Kuang; and to the Governors of Kiangsu, Anhui, Hunan, Chekiang and Kuangsi after the conclusion of the* 1911 *Opium Agreement:*

Since the conclusion by this Board of the Opium Agreement with His Majesty's Minister the methods employed in the provinces for the suppression of opium have been far from satisfactory, and the Board is therefore compelled to explain the purport of the Agreement in order to avoid misunderstanding in the future.

Article VII reads: "China will at once cause to be withdrawn all restrictions placed by the Provincial authorities on the wholesale trade in Indian opium . . . and also all taxation on the wholesale trade other than the consolidated import duty." The object of inserting this Article is to afford a set-off for the increased rate of import duty and so all taxes formerly imposed by the provinces as a means of raising funds must be abolished in their entirety. But the laws for the suppression of opium must continue to be effectively administered, and so at the end of the Article are inserted the words, "The foregoing stipulations shall not derogate . . . drug in general." Take for example the "Smoking Certificate Tax." The original purpose of this tax was to regulate the retail trade and keep a check on smokers; but the provinces by arbitrarily authorizing the opium dealers to collect and pay in the tax, or by taxing raw opium as prepared, not only impose a double penalty on the merchants, but cease to keep a

On December 13 the China Association informed the Foreign Office that "practically all Provinces are declared closed to Indian opium traffic," and referred to the discovery that the new Criminal Code, promulgated earlier in the year, contained the following provisions :—

TEN TEMPORARY ARTICLES FROM THE NEW CRIMINAL CODE

SECTION 21.—*Penalties in regard to Opium*

ARTICLE 260.—Those who prepare Opium, or sell it, or who smuggle Opium with the express intention of smoking it, or who import Opium from foreign countries, will be liable to penal servitude from the 3rd to the 5th degree.

ARTICLE 261.—Those who manufacture utensils for smoking Opium, or who sell the same, or smuggle them with the express intention of selling, or import the same from foreign countries will be liable to penal servitude of the 4th degree or to imprisonment.

ARTICLE 262.—Customs officials and their assistants who import Opium from abroad or utensils for smoking Opium, or who incite others to import, will be liable to penal servitude in the 2nd and 3rd degree.

ARTICLE 263.—Those who open Opium dens for the purpose of supplying Opium to smokers will be liable to penal servitude in the 4th degree and under or to imprisonment. They will also be fined a sum not exceeding three hundred dollars.

ARTICLE 264.—Those who plant the poppy with the intention of preparing Opium will be liable to penal servitude in the 4th degree and under or to imprisonment, or to a fine not exceeding three hundred dollars.

ARTICLE 265.—Those who smoke Opium will be liable to penal servitude in the 5th degree or to imprisonment, or to a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars.

ARTICLE 266.—Should there be any breach of the above six articles during the term of office of any police officials and their assistants, the latter, should they purposely fail to award a proper penalty, will be punished in the same way as provided for in the above six articles.

ARTICLE 267.—Those who secretly store Opium-smoking utensils will be liable to a fine not exceeding one hundred dollars.

check on the smokers. In future the regulation of the trade must be restricted to the issue of "Smoking Certificates," and thus the cause of opium suppression will obtain benefit without contravening the Agreement.

As to the suppression of opium by provinces, dealt with in Article III, the Board proposes to hold an investigation. If a whole province can establish by clear evidence that it has suppressed the cultivation and import of native opium, the Board can then bring before His Majesty's Minister the question of suppressing the import of foreign opium. But if in any province the cultivation has not yet entirely ceased and there are still a large number of smokers, no forcible repressive measures must be taken in that province in respect of the trade in, and movement of, foreign or native opium. This Board is bound, under all circumstances, to see that the Agreement concluded by it is put into effect, and so it earnestly hopes that the provinces will act in a lawful manner, to the great advantage of the anti-opium cause.

You are requested to take note of this and instruct your subordinates accordingly.

Article 268.—Although an offence under Articles 260 to 265 has not been actually completed, it will still be considered an offence.

Article 269.—Those committing offences under Articles 260 to 268 will lose all civil rights and must give up the office they hold.

The situation from the Indian Opium Merchants' point of view was summarized in the following document, dated November 29, 1912.

Chekiang.—Prohibition which began on February 17 is still in force.

Kiangsi.—Monopoly established for existing stocks on June 15 to be worked off December 31, 1912. All importation prohibited and shops closed.

Tutuh declared to Consul at Kiukiang on numerous occasions that the regulations were against native drug only. In spite of these statements Indian Opium is prohibited, and numerous seizures reported at Chang-ning, Hsien, and Kiukiang native city in September and October.

Further seizures reported by telegram from Kiukiang yesterday :—

3 packages by Likin station, Kiukiang city.
4 ,, Magistrate, Tekanhsien.
101 ,, ,, Wanchi.

Magistrates have threatened owners with severe penalties, such as fines amounting to $20,000 and also death.

Anhui.—Prohibition enforced in province and shops closed suddenly. On September 15, 7 chests were seized and burnt in Anking. On September 24, 1½ chests were also seized at Tatung, but released on dealers promising to ship same back to Shanghai on paying fine of $1200. On or about September 18, 47 packages were burnt at Boon Yuen, also some 50 packages destroyed in other parts of the province.

Prohibition now in force all over the province. A few shops are still open in Wuhu, but a delegate arrived on 25th instant to close them all within a month.

Hupeh.—Proclamation issued in Wuchang sometime about November 19 prohibiting further importation and creating monopoly for all existing stocks in province, which must be worked off within six months. Yesterday, 28th instant, a further proclamation was issued making it a criminal offence to deal in opium.

Kiangsu.—Proclamations issued in September closing shops and prohibiting importation of Indian opium by end of November and warning dealers to abstain from further purchases from Shanghai. Tutuh promised Consul at Nanking that regulation would not be enforced against foreign opium. In spite of these assurances,

Tsungming Haimun Tungchow Tungtai Singchie Tonglea Lolee Wookong	Have issued proclamations forcibly preventing importation from November 19. A few chests sent to Tsungming were sent back to Shanghai by order of the Authorities, as the opium was shipped after the prohibition, i.e. on November 21.

Nanking.—The authorities in the city warned the dealers on Wednesday, the 27th inst., that trade must cease on Saturday, 30th inst. Other districts in Kiangsu have also warned dealers that importation must cease.

A special official arrived in Shanghai from Nanking yesterday for the special purpose of putting an end to the entire trade outside the settlements by December 31, 1912.

It was estimated that at the end of 1912 the Indian opium merchants held stocks of the drug amounting to upwards of 20,000 chests, either in Hongkong and Shanghai, or actually purchased and awaiting importation. Moreover, in view of the inflated prices of opium, and the continuation of Indian sales, the merchants could only avoid disastrous losses by continuing to buy the Indian certificated opium as fast as it came into the market.

The Chinese point of view was that the Opium Agreement in no way restricted the Government's right to adopt any measures it thought fit for the suppression of the retail trade, and that the suppression of the latter, strictly enforced, would naturally mean the absolute prohibition of the wholesale traffic. It was also argued, with some reason, that to permit the continued sale of Indian opium while prohibiting the manufacture and sale of the native product was an impracticable method of procedure, and one which was a direct inducement to native cultivators to defy the Central Government.

As there was considerable controversy regarding the actual condition of opium cultivation in China in 1912, the following summary, compiled from American Consular Reports, is reproduced :

OPIUM CONDITIONS IN THE PROVINCES

SHANSI.—There was a slight relapse, but the names of the districts in which it occurred are unknown.

SHENSI.—There was a recrudescence of cultivation upon a large scale in the valley of the Wei River. The authorities are now trying to put it down.

KANSU.—There was a great revival of opium production, but measures are being taken to prevent its repetition. Latest advices indicate that Liangchow Prefecture is ignoring prohibition.

HEILUNGKIANG.—No poppy cultivation. Some opium smuggled over the Russian border.

KIRIN.—No cultivation ; some smuggling.

SHENGKING.—No cultivation.

CHIHLI.—No cultivation.

SHANTUNG.—In 1912 no fewer than twenty-four hsien grew poppies. Only two Prefectures are said to be growing it this year (1913).

SZECHUAN.—In five Prefectures there was a revival of opium production, but these are the districts which are still in more or less disorder.

HUPEH.—A small quantity was produced in one Sub-Prefecture and one hsien. The laws are now severely enforced.

HUNAN.—Opium was produced in two Sub-Prefectures and a number of quiet valleys upon the borders of the province. The laws are now drastically enforced.

KIANGSI.—Cultivation took place in five hsien and also along the provincial border.

ANHUI.—Opium was produced in one Prefecture, but the Governor is now very zealous in enforcing the law.

KIANGSU.—Some opium is believed to have been produced in the northern part of the province, which is more or less isolated.

CHEKIANG.—Cultivation took place in two departments and one hsien.

FUKIEN.—Cultivation was reported in six Prefectures out of eleven.

KUANTUNG.—Opium was produced in two hsien near Swatow, but the authorities are now active.

KUANGSI.—No cultivation reported.

KUEICHOW.—Large quantities all over the province. Efforts are now being made to suppress cultivation.

YUNNAN.—Real condition unknown. Authorities report that cultivation is being successfully suppressed.

HONAN.—A little cultivation was reported in five hsien.

1913

One remedy for the crisis was regarded as essential on all sides, namely, the immediate cessation of sales of certificated Indian opium. Towards the end of December opium merchants in India petitioned in favour of this step, and it was announced early in January, 1913, that this course had been decided upon by the Government of India. The latter decided to allow no sales of opium for the Chinese market in Calcutta after the auction of 170 chests fixed for April 1, and no sale of certificated opium in Bombay after March 12. It was also decided as a temporary measure to reduce the amount of opium to be sold in 1913 for consumption in countries other than China from 13,200 to 9,000 chests, with a view to lightening the China stocks.

In March a Conference of the Chinese National Opium Prohibition Union, attended by delegates from most of the provinces, was held in Peking. The resolutions adopted, while showing an earnest desire to eradicate the opium evil, were generally of an impracticable nature so far as the disposal of the Indian stocks was concerned. An appeal was issued for world-wide subscriptions for the purpose of purchasing the Indian stocks in China at cost price and publicly destroying them.

In May, Anhui, Hunan and Shantung were added to the list of provinces from which Indian opium was to be excluded under the 1911 Treaty. The other provinces are—Fengtien, Heilungkiang, Kirin, Shansi, Szechuan, Chihli and Kuangsi.

On May 7, a debate upon the Indo-Chinese Opium Traffic took place in the British House of Commons, at which the Under-Secretary of State for India announced that the Indian Government would not export any further certificated opium to China, although under Treaty it would be entitled to continue to trade until 1917.

In June the Waichiaopu offered to pay the cost of re-shipping opium back to India—an offer which was not entertained by the British Government.

General L. Chang, President of the National Opium Prohibition Union, went to England on an unofficial mission during the summer, and interviewed many prominent public men and officials, with a view to inducing the British Government not to press for the sale of the accumulated Indian stocks in China. Although his mission attracted considerable attention, he was not successful in accomplishing its main object

1914

The work of prohibition was continued throughout 1914, mainly under the stimulus of the National Opium Prohibition Union of Peking, the trade in foreign opium following a normal course towards extinction. As the Canton Commissioner of Customs shrewdly points out, "Once the foreign trade disappears, the habit of opium smoking may still linger for a while, fed on supplies from illegitimate sources, but amongst the rising generation there are undoubtedly very few devotees, and the day is probably not far distant when the demand for the drug will cease altogether."

The Reform Bureau in Peking reported that even backward provinces were falling into line in the matter of suppressing opium. In April nearly $50,000 worth of opium was burnt at Tientsin, making the fifth time that the drug had been publicly burnt in Chihli.

The Shanghai Municipal Council undertook to suppress all opium shops in two years by means of half-yearly drawings.

1915

The first public drawing for the closing of 25 per cent of the opium shops in Shanghai foreign settlement took place on June 30. The number of chests then held in bond was reported to be 3436.

The following fifteen provinces were held to be closed to the opium traffic :—

Anhui
Chekiang
Chihli
Fengtien
Fukien
Heilungkiang
Honan
Hunan
Hupeh
Kirin
Kuangsi
Shensi
Shantung
Sinkiang
Szechuan

In view of the special conditions created by the war, opium merchants were accorded an extension of time within which to dispose of their stocks.

1916–18

In accordance with the Anglo-Chinese Agreement of 1911 the legitimate foreign opium trade in China and the legitimate Chinese cultivation of opium came to an end on December 31, 1917. At that date there was a large accumulation of opium at Shanghai, and the question as to the disposal of these stocks was at once keenly canvassed. In the meantime the troubled condition of the country led to a marked recrudescence of opium growing throughout a number of provinces. On June 11, 1918, an official from the Ministry of Finance signed an Agreement with the Opium Combine at Shanghai by which the Government undertook to purchase the balance of 1,576 chests at Tls. 6,200 per chest; the total indebtedness to be discharged by the deposit of Chinese bonds to the amount in question, bearing six per cent interest and redeemable in ten years. It soon became known, however, that the intention of those concerned in the deal was to resell the whole stock of opium to a Shanghai syndicate at Tls. 8,000 per chest. The syndicate, it was stated, was to advance the Peking Government $5,000,000, and would obtain the right of disposing of the opium under certain restrictions in Kiangsu and Kiangsi. This proposed deal evoked protests from the British and American Governments, who pointed out that it was in contravention of the Agreement of 1911, and that any such action would amount to a revival of the opium traffic. The controversy dragged on until in accordance with a decision of the Peking Government, the whole stock of opium, amounting to over 1,200 chests (300 had previously been sold), was publicly burnt.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

On December 1, 1911, an International Opium Conference met at The Hague, again on the initiative of the United States Government. The Powers represented were China, France, Germany, Great Britain, Holland, Italy, Japan, Persia, Portugal, Siam, Russia and the United States. Austria-Hungary alone of the Powers represented at the Shanghai Commission did not take part in the Conference at The Hague. On January 23, 1912, the following Convention was signed :—

INTERNATIONAL OPIUM CONVENTION

CHAPTER I.—*Raw Opium*

Definition.—By "raw opium" is understood :

The spontaneously coagulated juice obtained from the capsules of the *Papaver somniferum*, which has only been submitted to the necessary manipulations for packing and transport.

ARTICLE 1.—The contracting Powers shall enact effective laws or regulations for the control of the production and distribution of raw opium, unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 2.—Due regard being had to the differences in their commercial conditions, the contracting Powers shall limit the number of towns, ports, or other localities through which the export or import of raw opium shall be permitted.

ARTICLE 3.—The contracting Powers shall take measures—

(*a*) To prevent the export of raw opium to countries which shall have prohibited its entry, and

(*b*) To control the export of raw opium to countries which restrict its import, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 4.—The contracting Powers shall make regulations requiring that every package containing raw opium intended for export shall be marked in such a way as to indicate its contents, provided that the consignment exceeds 5 kilog.

ARTICLE 5.—The contracting Powers shall not allow the import and export of raw opium except by duly authorized persons.

CHAPTER II.—*Prepared Opium*

Definition.—By "prepared opium" is understood :

The product of raw opium, obtained by a series of special operations, especially by dissolving, boiling, roasting, and fermentation, designed to transform it into an extract suitable for consumption.

Prepared opium includes dross and all other residues remaining when opium has been smoked.

ARTICLE 6.—The contracting Powers shall take measures for the gradual and effective suppression of the manufacture of, internal trade in, and use of prepared opium, with due regard to the varying circumstances of each country concerned, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 7.—The contracting Powers shall prohibit the import and export of prepared opium; those Powers, however, which are not yet ready to prohibit immediately the export of prepared opium shall prohibit it as soon as possible.

ARTICLE 8.—The contracting Powers which are not yet ready to prohibit immediately the export of prepared opium—

(*a*) Shall restrict the number of towns, ports, or other localities through which prepared opium may be exported;

(*b*) Shall prohibit the export of prepared opium to countries which now forbid, or which may hereafter forbid, the import thereof;

(*c*) Shall, in the meanwhile, prohibit the consignment of prepared opium to a country which desires to restrict its entry, unless the exporter complies with the regulations of the importing country;

(*d*) Shall take measures to ensure that every package exported, containing prepared opium, bears a special mark indicating the nature of its contents;

(*e*) Shall not permit the export of prepared opium except by specially authorized persons.

CHAPTER III.—*Medicinal Opium, Morphine, Cocaine, etc.*

Definitions.—By "medicinal opium" is understood:

Raw opium which has been heated to 60° centigrade and contains not less than 10 per cent of morphine, whether or not it be powdered or granulated or mixed with indifferent materials.

By "morphine" is understood:

The principal alkaloid of opium, having the chemical formula $C_{17}H_{19}NO_3$.

By "cocaine" is understood:

The principal alkaloid of the leaves of *Erythroxylon coca*, having the formula $C_{17}H_{21}NO_4$.

By "heroine" is understood:

Diacetyl-morphine, having the formula $C_{21}H_{23}NO_5$.

ARTICLE 9.—The contracting Powers shall enact pharmacy laws or regulations to confine to medical and legitimate purposes the manufacture, sale, and use of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence. They shall co-operate with one another to prevent the use of these drugs for any other purpose.

ARTICLE 10.—The contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to control, or to cause to be controlled, all persons manufacturing, importing, selling, distributing, and exporting morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as well as the buildings in which these persons carry on such industry or trade.

With this object, the contracting Parties shall use their best endeavours to adopt, or cause to be adopted, the following measures, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence:—

(*a*) To confine the manufacture of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts to those establishments and premises alone which have been licensed for the purpose, or to obtain information respecting the establishments and premises in which these drugs are manufactured and to keep a register of them;

(*b*) To require that all persons engaged in the manufacture, import, sale, distribution, or export of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts shall be furnished with a licence or permit to engage in these operations, or shall make to the competent authorities an official declaration that they are so engaged ;

(*c*) To require that such persons shall enter in their books the quantities manufactured, imports, sales and all other distribution, and exports of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts. This rule shall not necessarily apply to medical prescriptions and to sales by duly authorized chemists.

ARTICLE 11.—The contracting Powers shall take measures to prohibit, as regards their internal trade, the delivery of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts to any unauthorized persons, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 12.—Due regard being had to the differences in their conditions, the contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to restrict to authorized persons the import of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts.

ARTICLE 13.—The contracting Powers shall use their best endeavours to adopt, or cause to be adopted, measures to ensure that morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts shall not be exported from their countries, possessions, colonies, and leased territories to the countries, possessions, colonies, and leased territories of the other contracting Powers, except when consigned to persons furnished with the licences or permits provided for by the laws or regulations of the importing country.

With this object each Government may communicate from time to time to the Governments of the exporting countries lists of the persons to whom licences or permits for the import of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts have been granted.

ARTICLE 14.—The contracting Powers shall apply the laws and regulations respecting the manufacture, import, sale, or export of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts—

(*a*) To medicinal opium ;

(*b*) To all preparations (officinal and non-officinal, including the so-called anti-opium remedies) containing more than 0·2 per cent of morphine, or more than 0·1 per cent of cocaine ;

(*c*) To heroine, its salts and preparations containing more than 0·1 per cent of heroine ;

(*d*) To all new derivatives of morphine, of cocaine, or of their respective salts, and to every other alkaloid of opium, which may be shown by scientific research, generally recognized, to be liable to similar abuse and productive of like ill-effects.

CHAPTER IV

ARTICLE 15.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China (Treaty Powers), shall, in conjunction with the Chinese Government, take the necessary measures to prevent the smuggling into Chinese territory, as well as into their Far-Eastern colonies and into the leased territories which they occupy in China, of raw and prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as also of the substances referred to in Article 14 of the present convention. The Chinese Government shall, on their part, take similar measures for the suppression of the smuggling of opium and of the other substances above referred to from China to the foreign colonies and leased territories.

ARTICLE 16.—The Chinese Government shall promulgate pharmacy laws for their subjects, regulating the sale and distribution of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, and of the substances referred to in Article 14 of the present convention, and shall communicate these laws to the Governments having treaties with China, through their diplomatic representatives at Peking. The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall examine these laws and, if they find them acceptable, shall take the necessary measures to apply them to their nationals residing in China.

ARTICLE 17.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall undertake to adopt the necessary measures to restrict and control the habit of smoking opium in their leased territories, settlements, and concessions in China, to suppress, *pari passu* with the Chinese Government, the opium dens or similar establishments which may still exist there, and to prohibit the use of opium in places of entertainment and brothels.

ARTICLE 18.—The contracting Powers having treaties with China shall take effective measures for the gradual reduction, *pari passu* with the effective measures which the Chinese Government shall take with the same object, of the number of shops in which raw and prepared opium is sold, which may still exist in their leased territories, settlements, and concessions in China. They shall adopt effective measures for the restriction and control of the retail trade in opium in the leased territories, settlements, and concessions, unless regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 19.—The contracting Powers having post offices in China shall adopt effective measures to prohibit the illegal import into China in the form of postal packages, as well as the illegal transmission through these offices from one place in China to another, of opium (raw or prepared), morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, and of the other substances referred to in Article 14 of the present convention.

CHAPTER V

ARTICLE 20.—The contracting Powers shall examine the possibility of enacting laws or regulations making it a penal offence to be in illegal possession of raw opium, prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, unless laws or regulations on the subject are already in existence.

ARTICLE 21.—The contracting Powers shall communicate to one another, through the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Netherlands—

(*a*) The texts of the existing laws and administrative regulations respecting the matters referred to in the present convention, or promulgated in virtue of the clauses thereof;

(*b*) Statistical information as regards the trade in raw opium, prepared opium, morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts, as well as in the other drugs or their salts or preparations referred to in the present convention.

These statistics shall be furnished with as many details and within a period as short as may be considered possible.

CHAPTER VI.—*Final Provisions*

ARTICLE 22.—Any Power not represented at the conference shall be allowed to sign the present convention.

With this object the Government of the Netherlands will, immediately after the signature of the convention by the Plenipotentiaries of the Powers which have taken part in the conference, invite all the Powers of Europe and America not represented at the conference, that is to say:

The Argentine Republic, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, Bulgaria, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Republic of Cuba, Denmark, the Dominican Republic, the Republic of Ecuador, Spain, Greece, Guatemala, the Republic of Haiti, Honduras, Luxemburg, Mexico, Montenegro, Nicaragua, Norway, Panamá, Paraguay, Peru, Roumania, Salvador, Servia, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, Uruguay, the United States of Venezuela,

to appoint a delegate, furnished with the necessary full powers, to sign the convention at The Hague.

These signatures shall be affixed to the convention by means of a "Protocol of signature by Powers not represented at the conference," to be added after the signatures of the Powers represented, the date of each signature being mentioned.

The Government of the Netherlands will, every month, notify the signatory Powers of each supplementary signature.

ARTICLE 23.—After all the Powers, as well on their own behalf as on behalf of their possessions, colonies, protectorates, and leased territories, have signed the convention or the supplementary protocol above referred to, the Government of the Netherlands will invite all the Powers to ratify the convention with this protocol.

In the event of the signature of all the Powers invited not having been obtained on the date of the 31st December, 1912, the Government of the Netherlands will immediately invite the Powers who have signed by that date to appoint delegates to examine at The Hague the possibility of depositing their ratifications notwithstanding.

The ratification shall take place within as short a period as possible and shall be deposited at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at The Hague.

The Government of the Netherlands will every month notify the signatory Powers of the ratifications which they have received in the interval.

As soon as the ratifications of all the signatory Powers, as well on their own behalf as on behalf of their own colonies, possessions, protectorates, and leased territories, have been received by the Government of the Netherlands, the latter will notify all the Powers who have ratified the convention of the date on which it received the last instrument of ratification.

ARTICLE 24.—The present convention shall come into force three months after the date mentioned in the notification by the Government of the Netherlands, referred to in the last paragraph of the preceding article.

With regard to the laws, regulations, or other measures contemplated by the present convention, it is agreed that the Bills or drafts required for this purpose shall be prepared not later than six months after the entry into force of the convention. As regards the laws, they shall also be submitted by their Governments to the Parliaments or legislative bodies within the same period of six months, or in any case at the first session following the expiration of this period.

The date on which these laws, regulations, or measures shall come into force shall form the subject of an agreement between the contracting Powers, at the instance of the Government of the Netherlands.

In the event of questions arising relative to the ratification of the present convention, or to the enforcement either of the convention or of the laws, regulations, or measures resulting therefrom, the Government of the Netherlands will, if these questions cannot be settled by other means, invite all the contracting Powers to appoint delegates to meet at The Hague in order to arrive at an immediate agreement on these questions.

ARTICLE 25.—If one of the contracting Powers should wish to denounce the present convention, the denunciation shall be notified in writing to the Government of the Netherlands, who will immediately communicate a certified copy of the notification to all the other Powers, informing them of the date on which it was received.

The denunciation shall take effect only as regards the Power which notified it, and one year after the notification thereof has reached the Government of the Netherlands.

Four of the signatories made the following reservations :—

France : "With the reservation that a separate and special ratification or denunciation may subsequently be obtained for the French protectorates."

Great Britain : "With the reservation of the following declaration :

The articles of the present convention, if ratified by His Britannic Majesty's Government, shall apply to the Government of British India, Ceylon, the Straits Settlements, Hongkong, and Weihaiwei in every respect in the same way as they shall apply to the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland ; but His Britannic Majesty's Government reserve the right of signing or denouncing separately the said convention in the name of any dominion, colony, dependency, or protectorate of His Majesty other than those which have been specified."

Persia : "With the reservation of Articles 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19 (Persia having no treaty with China), and paragraph (*a*) of Article 3."

Siam : "With the reservation of Articles 15, 16, 17, 18, and 19, Siam having no treaty with China."

Final Protocol of the International Opium Conference

The conference further expressed the following *vœux :—*

1. The conference considers it desirable to direct the attention of the Universal Postal Union—

(1) To the urgency of regulating the transmission through the post of raw opium ;

(2) To the urgency of regulating as far as possible the transmission through the post of morphine, cocaine, and their respective salts and other substances referred to in Article 14 of the convention ;

(3) To the necessity of prohibiting the transmission of prepared opium through the post.

2. The conference considers it desirable to study the question of Indian hemp from the statistical and scientific point of view, with the object of regulating its abuses, should the necessity thereof be felt, by internal legislation or by an international agreement.

Opium in Hongkong

The steps taken for the suppression of opium smoking in Hongkong, as set forth in the Governor's Annual Reports, have been as follows :—

In pursuance of the policy of His Majesty's Government, twenty-six opium divans were first closed on March 1, 1909. All remaining divan-keepers both in the Colony and the New Territories were notified that no licences would be renewed after February 28, 1910, and all opium divans were finally closed on March 1, 1910. The opium laws of the Colony were consolidated in September, 1909, and were amended so as to give full effect to the recommendations made by the International Opium Conference, which sat at Shanghai during February, 1909, and to the policy of His Majesty's Government. In 1910 two further

Ordinances were passed with a view to making the provisions of the Ordinance of 1909 more effective, while the Pharmacy Amendment Ordinance, 1910, increased the powers of the Government in controlling poisons, including morphine and cocaine. Tenders for the lease of a new opium farm for three years from March 1, 1910, were called for, and the lease was granted to Messrs. Ho Kom-tong, Ng Li-ling, Lau Chü-pak and Ch'an K'ai-meng, at an annual rental of $1,183,200. This means a loss to the revenue of $225,860 during 1910 and of $270,660 during each of the years 1911 and 1912.

When the contract for the opium farm expired in March, 1913, it was decided that, pending consideration of what steps would be necessary to give effect to The Hague Opium Convention, the term of the farm should be extended for one year only—to March 1, 1914. In sanctioning this course the Secretary of State for the Colonies asked the Hongkong Government to give careful consideration to the question whether it would not be possible on the expiration of the extended lease to abolish the farm system, and to adopt instead the arrangement in force in the Straits Settlements, by which the importation and preparation for consumption of opium was under the direct control of the Government. In October, 1913, the Hongkong Government announced that from March, 1914, it would abolish the farm system and establish in its place a Government monopoly. The estimated revenue from opium for 1914 (including two months of the farm system) was set down as $2,573,000, with an expenditure of $993,631 (including $849,900 for the purchase of raw opium), leaving a balance for the Government of $1,579,369. In due course, on March 1, 1914, the Hongkong Government Opium Monopoly assumed control of the opium business hitherto leased out to the opium farmer.

The restrictions placed on the consumption of opium both inside and outside the Colony at that time were as follows :—

(1) The smoking of opium is restricted in Hongkong primarily by the existence of a monopoly under which the sole right of preparing opium for smoking and of selling the prepared drug is vested in a monopolist, who is thus enabled to charge a very high price for the drug. The selling price of prepared opium and dross opium is $4.50 and $2.00 respectively, per Chinese ounce ($=1\frac{1}{3}$ oz.). The monopolist alone can import prepared opium.

(2) Opium divans (or dens) have been closed. Heavy penalties are imposed for the illicit opening of a divan. Persons found smoking in a divan are liable to fine, and persons found in, or escaping from, a divan are, under the law, presumed to have been smoking therein.

(3) Penalties are imposed on any person who administers by injection or furnishes morphine to any person except under prescription from a qualified medical practitioner.

(4) The importation for sale or use within the Colony, the preparation, manufacture and sale of morphine and compounds of opium are restricted by licence.

Licences are restricted to a few chemists and druggists of good repute, who have to pay a royalty to the monopolist referred to in (1) of ten dollars per tael of morphine and four dollars per tael of compound of opium other than morphine. The price is thereby enhanced. Under the condition of these licences morphine and compounds of opium may not be sold to the general public in quantities less than of the value of 20 cents. The vendor must supply the purchaser at the time of sale with a counterfoil certificate.

The possession of morphine and compounds of opium without such certificate is illegal, and in quantities exceeding twelve official doses whether covered by certificates or not.

Supervision of the trade in these drugs is ensured by the compulsory keeping of books by the licensees, which are open to inspection.

Opium, morphine and compounds of opium are declared to be poisons under the Pharmacy Ordinance. Under the provisions of that Ordinance the seller must mark in English and Chinese the bottle or other package containing any such article with the name of the article, the word "poison" and the name and address of the seller. In addition, under the conditions of the licence above referred to, medicines purporting to be for the cure or relief of the opium habit, or to be substitutes for opium smoking or taking or for the morphine habit, and themselves containing opium, morphine, or any compound of opium, must bear a label to such effect in Chinese writing for the information of the purchaser.

The import, for purposes of export, of morphine and compounds of opium is regulated by licence under conditions for storage in a bonded warehouse and for the keeping of books, whereby the trade is supervised.

The export of prepared opium or dross opium by any person (including the monopolist of the preparation and sale of prepared opium) to China, French Indo-China, or any other country which prohibits the import of prepared opium or dross opium, is illegal.

The export of prepared opium and dross opium to countries to which it is lawful to export them is only allowed under permit.

Similarly the export of morphine and compounds of opium to countries which prohibit their import is illegal.

Since April, 1910, the export of morphine and compounds of opium from Hongkong to Siam, the Netherlands-India, French Indo-China, Japan, the United States of America and the Philippine Islands is not permitted except on production of an official certificate from the country concerned that such morphine or compounds of opium are required for medical purposes or by the Government of the country.

His Majesty's Government made the Colony a grant of £9000 for the year 1910, on account of a loss of $225,860 incurred during that year in respect of opium revenue.

Stringent regulations are in force for regulating the trade in cocaine, its derivatives and compounds, with a view to prevent their use as substitutes for opium.

In order to replace the revenue lost on opium, a law was passed on September 17, 1909, imposing duties on intoxicating liquors consumed in the Colony, and in this connection the Imports and Exports Office was reorganized, Lieut. Beckwith, R.N., the Assistant Harbour Master, being appointed Superintendent. By the close of 1909 a sum of $101,844.20 had been realized from the new liquor duties.

The following statistics are taken from publications of the Maritime Customs :—

TOTAL NET IMPORTATIONS OF FOREIGN OPIUM

(Piculs. 1 Picul = $133\frac{1}{3}$ lb.)

1863	50,087	1877	69,297	1891	77,445	1905	51,920
1864	52,083	1878	71,492	1892	70,782	1906	54,117
1865	56,133	1879	82,927	1893	68,108	1907	54,584
1866	64,516	1880	75,308	1894	63,125	1908	48,397
1867	60,948	1881	74,005	1895	51,306[1]	1909	48,875
1868	53,915	1882	66,908	1896	48,994	1910	35,447
1869	53,310	1883	68,168	1897	49,309	1911	27,757
1870	58,817	1884	68,819	1898	49,752	1912	22,021
1871	59,670	1885	65,259	1899	59,161	1913	18,194
1872	61,193	1886	67,801	1900	49,279	1914	7,484
1873	65,797	1887	73,877	1901	49,484	1915	4,447
1874	67,468	1888	82,612	1902	50,764	1916	1,498
1875	66,461	1889	76,052	1903	58,457	1917	1,072[2]
1876	68,042	1890	76,616	1904	54,752		

The average annual importation by decades was as follows :—

	Piculs.
1863 to 1870	56,226
1871 ,, 1880	68,765
1881 ,, 1890	72,012
1891 ,, 1900	58,726
1901 ,, 1910	56,679

It is estimated that prior to 1887 at least 20,000 piculs were smuggled into China annually, while since that date the illegitimate trade has probably amounted on an average to 5000 piculs annually. The decrease in demand from 1888 on may be accounted for by the replacement of the foreign drug by native opium.

As the importation of foreign opium is often referred to in terms of "chests," it may be stated that the average net weight per chest of opium imported is as follows :—

	Catties.	
Malwa	100	(= $133\frac{1}{3}$ lb.)
Patna	120	(= 160 lb.)
Benares	120	(= 160 lb.)
Other kinds, Persian, etc. . .	100	(= $133\frac{1}{3}$ lb.)

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[1] In this year Formosa, which had imported between 1881 and 1890 on an average 4506 piculs annually, and in the four years 1891–1894 4829 piculs, was transferred to the Japanese flag.

[2] Including 225 piculs imported for consumption in the leased territories (Japanese) of Dairen and Ts'ngtao

Duty and Likin Collected on Native and Foreign Opium, 1889 *to* 1917

Year	Native Opium.		Foreign Opium.		Total.
	Duty.	Likin.[1]	Duty.	Likin.	
	Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
1889	1,343	—	2,281,983[2]	6,085,290	8,368,617
1890	3,131	—	2,298,401[2]	6,129,071	8,430,604
1891	31,429	—	2,324,214[2]	6,197,906	8,553,549
1892	161,280	—	2,125,127	5,667,006	7,953,414
1893	164,238	—	2,011,024	5,362,733	7,537,996
1894	363,151	—	1,893,863	5,050,302	7,307,318
1895	711,947	—	1,539,054	4,104,144	6,355,146
1896	505,684	—	1,469,909	3,919,759	5,895,353
1897	647,665	745	1,480,073	3,946,862	6,075,346
1898	477,417	43	1,493,677	3,983,138	5,954,277
1899	927,750	207	1,780,513	4,748,036	7,456,507
1900	828,222	1,237	1,485,069	3,960,185	6,274,715
1901	1,199,530	89	1,488,915	3,970,441	6,658,977
1902	552,964	289	1,537,692	4,100,513	6,191,460
1903	467,906	295	1,764,290	4,704,774	6,937,267
1904	920,420	177	1,643,214	4,381,906	6,945,718
1905	1,145,465	67	1,557,720	4,153,989	6,857,243
1906	714,730	36	1,623,925	4,330,046	6,668,738
1907	150,196	16	1,639,072	4,370,860	6,160,145
1908	370,549	363	1,451,646	3,871,058	5,693,618
1909	272,642	119	1,464,692	3,905,846	5,643,299
1910	148,365	—	1,064,634	2,839,023	4,052,022
1911	30,888[3]	—	1,360,744	3,564,156	4,955,788
1912	11,569	—	1,769,438	4,424,117	6,205,124
1913	3,568[4]	—	1,527,448	3,819,132	5,350,148
1914	4,003	—	639,253	1,598,212	2,241,468
1915	—	—	375,610	939,164	1,314,774
1916	—	—	114,814	287,064	401,878
1917	—	—	86,280	215,705	301,985

[1] Collected in lieu of inland dues.

[2] Calculated on the basis of three-eighths of the opium likin.

[3] Excluding *Hk. Tls.* 51,365 supplementary and additional duty.

[4] Excluding *Hk. Tls.* 6194 supplementary and additional duty.

Net Total Imports of Foreign Opium into Shanghai during the years 1906–17

Year.	Malwa.		Patna.		Benares.		Boiled Foreign (Unclassified).		Total.	
	lb.	£	*lb.*	£	*lb.*	£	*lb.*	£	*lb.*	£
1906[1] .	268,933	199,960	1,120,133	664,852	706,400	409,802	267	334	2,095,733	1,274,948
1907[2] .	216,533	172,451	1,165,466	848,768	741,066	507,725	267	310	2,123,332	1,529,254
1908[3] .	277,333	240,346	956,933	844,397	594,800	506,057	667	905	1,829,733	1,591,705
1909 . .	315,866	254,932	1,013,066	685,252	650,533	434,431	133	189	1,979,598	1,374,804
1910 . .	278,000	442,691	807,733	1,273,905	528,666	828,979	133	314	1,614,532	2,545,889
1911 . .	425,066	839,682	522,400	878,833	505,333	843,122	564	1,425	1,453,363	2,563,062
1912 . .	364,766	986,960	330,401	823,983	319,680	802,738	526	1,222	1,015,373	2,614,903
1913 . .	794,585	2,124,794	433,974	1,130,707	72,426	189,852	84	285	1,301,069	3,445,638
1914 . .	327,181	1,775,038	156,266	782,053	69,506	348,636	—	—	552,953	2,905,727
1915 . .	186,261		114,165		86,336		—	—	386,762	
1916 . .	50,860		15,309		32,116		—	—	98,285	
1917 . .	51,029	618,438	20,251	184,075	14,760	148,959	—	—	86,040	951,472

[1] Also Persian opium, 533 lb., value £298.

[2] Also Persian opium, 1466 lb., value £917.

[3] Also Persian opium, 400 lb., value £356.

The following tables give the value of the different kinds of foreign opium imported into Shanghai, and of native opium at Shanghai :—

Foreign Opium

Year.	Malwa, *per Picul.*	Patna, *per Picul.*	Benares, *per Picul.*	Persian, *per Picul.*	Turkey, *per Picul.*	Boiled, *per Picul.*
	Hk. Tls.	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
1870	496	417	399	360	—	—
1871	515	500	490	404	400	—
1872	480	420	410	375	375	—
1873	470	382	372	390	—	—
1874	475	400	400	385	—	—
1875	413	417	405	315	—	—
1876	411	414	399	370	—	—
1877	460	420	405	365	—	—
1878	515	365	348	361	269	—
1879	510	370	343	380	—	—
1880	514	380	360	380	—	—
1881	560	405	405	444	—	—
1882	442	386	379	291	—	—
1883	378	384	367	313	—	—
1884	397	355	353	359	—	—
1885	390	355	344	364	—	—
1886	388	320	316	318	—	—
1887	381	296	289	322	322	—
1888	417	311	318	337	—	834
1889	412	316	316	328	330	950
1890	378	296	294	321	—	841
1891	364	298	273	246	—	850
1892	380	335	332	260	260	800
1893	498	455	458	375	—	1,071
1894	552	491	491	455	—	1,053
1895	581	535	529	514	—	920
1896	637	602	615	507	—	1,025
1897	665	536	542	510	—	950
1898	635	625	620	510	—	950
1899	649	575	570	505	—	950
1900	613	639	646	284	300	747
1901	700	670	670	515	500	734
1902	780	730	730	535	—	744
1903	792	806	794	618	595	1,000
1904	730	655	641	538	—	800
1905	808	595	577	525	—	750
1906	645	590	555	588	—	1,098
1907	610	487	476	450	—	900
1908	711	724	698	—	—	987
1909	828	694	686	—	—	1,600
1911 (Nov.)	2077	2168	—	—	—	—
1912	2500–2000	2625–1916	—	—	—	—
1913	2360	2300	2314	—	—	3,000
1914	6900–5200	5690–4500	—	—	—	—
1915	10,000-10,500	9405	—	—	—	—
1916	9500-13,000	—	—	—	—	—
1917	13,000-16,000	—	—	—	—	—

Native Opium

Year.	Szechuan.	Yunnan.	Kiangsu.	Honan.	Shantung.	Shansi.	Cheang.	Chihli.	Manchuria.	Shensi.	Kueichou.	Boiled Opium.
	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls	Hk. Tls
1869	275	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	983
1870	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000
1871	240	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000
1872	240	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000
1873	250	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	700
1874	250	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	700
1875	244	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	550
1876	224	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	550
1877	290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	900
1878	305	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	900
1879	290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	707
1880	290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	730
1881	290	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	550
1882	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	712
1883	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	437
1884	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1885	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1886	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1887	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1888	305	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,200
1889	300	300*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,500
1890	350	349*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,205
1891	271	271*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1892	287	260*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1893	337	301*	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

* Appeared in Trade Returns as "Opium, other Provinces."

Native Opium—*continued*

Year.	Szechwan.	Yunnan.	Kiangsu.	Honan.	Shantung.	Shansi.	Chekiang.	Chihli.	Manchuria.	Shensi.	Kueichou.	Boiled Opium.
	Hk. Tls	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*	*Hk. Tls*
1894	314	316	—	300	—	287	—	—	—	—	—	1050
1895	296	329	—	294	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1896	302	258	300	300	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1897	320	356	—	—	258	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1898	380	360	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1899	330	365	320	—	—	330	—	—	—	—	—	710
1900	327	360	400	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	712
1901	330	364	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	377
1902	460	465	472	—	—	—	—	373	—	—	—	732
1903	433	447	375	—	465	—	—	465	395	—	—	775
1904	432	537	311	—	400	433	—	—	390	—	—	853
1905	344	482	320	—	—	343	—	—	—	—	—	1800
1906	405	686	346	—	—	—	130	—	—	—	—	750
1907	388	591	451	453	450	—	504	—	—	—	—	774
1908	450	709	450	447	432	443	388	—	—	—	—	773
1909	510	868	—	—	—	552	355	—	—	605	432	—
1910	939	1245	—	855	1269	940	—	—	—	1031	893	1162
1911	1326	1369	—	—	—	1635	—	—	—	1220	1225	—
1912	2159	2481	—	2048	—	2029	—	—	—	2118	2096	—

In respect to the above table the Commissioner of Customs at Shanghai, writing early in 1911, says :—

"It is a striking commentary on the condition of the drug as usually sold to see that boiled native opium commands little more than the average value of the crude drug. Adulterations and fraudulent imitations are almost universal—pork rind, dried pigs' blood, opium dross and even small quantities of morphia, all are mixed with sesamum seed-cake-stuff to produce a smokable compound."

CHAPTER XXIX

MISCELLANEOUS

Athletics in China

Organized athletics among the Chinese date from the present century, and have been mainly fostered by the Y.M.C.A. Two athletic meetings, at Shanghai and Tientsin, were held in 1904, the latter being an intercollegiate event, in which three colleges participated. The Tientsin meeting has since been held regularly every year. In 1908 the Y.M.C.A. established a school of physical exercise and athletics at Shanghai, under Dr. Max Exner and two trained physical instructors. The first national athletic meeting was held at Nanking during the exhibition in 1910; the second in May, 1912, in the ground of the Temple of Heaven in Peking, where a quarter-mile track was built. A Chinese athletic team, forty strong, went to Manila in February, 1913, to compete with Filipinos and Japanese at the Carnival games. This event led to a second Far Eastern Games meeting, held in Hongkew Park, Shanghai, in May, 1915. The Y.MC.A. employ foreigners and a large Chinese staff in physical training work, with branches at Shanghai, Tientsin, Peking, Hankow, Canton, Foochow, Hongkong, and Chengtu.

Boy Scouts

The Boy Scout movement was begun among the Chinese by the Y.M.C.A. in April, 1913. The headquarters of the Chinese Boy Scouts' Association is at 35 Elgin Road, Shanghai. (President: Y. C. Tong; Chairman of the Executive Committee: Y. Y. Tsu.) There are troops in Shanghai, Canton, and Hankow. The first National Boy Scout Rally took place in May, 1915, at the Far Eastern Games meeting.

Calendar

China has adopted the Western Calendar. A resolution to this effect was passed by the Tzechengyuan on November 20, 1911, and it is noteworthy that Dr. Sun Yat-sen took the oath as President of the Nanking Provisional Government on January 1—"the first day of the first year of the Republic of China." All official documents are now marked with European dates, though "old custom" in regard to the method of reckoning dates has not been entirely abandoned in the provinces.

Capital Punishment

In August, 1912, the Ministry of Justice issued instructions that in accordance with the custom in civilized countries, Chinese executions are no longer to be held in public.

Ceremonial Regulations

Under the Republic the elaborate etiquette and salutations of the old régime are to give place to a simpler form of ceremonial. On August 17, 1912, the following Bill was promulgated:—

CHAPTER I.—CEREMONIES FOR MEN

1. Salutations among men shall consist of raising the hat and bowing.
2. At special celebrations, sacrifices, weddings, funerals, and on the occasion of national celebrations, the hat is to be raised from the head and three bows are to be made.
3. At official feasts, republican ceremonies, and on ordinary occasions, the salutation shall consist of raising the hat from the head and making one bow.
4. At casual meetings the hat shall merely be raised from the head.
5. Military, Naval, and Police officials for whom there are special regulations shall not be bound by this law.

CHAPTER II.—CEREMONIES FOR WOMEN

6. Articles 2 and 3 shall apply to women, with the exception that they shall not raise their hats. At casual meetings they will make one bow.
7. This law shall be enforced from the date of publication.

Chinese Chambers of Commerce

A. IN CHINA

According to returns supplied by the Ministry of Commerce and Industry, Chinese Chambers of Commerce existed in 1914 at the following centres:—

CHIHLI: Peking, Paotingfu, Kalgan, Tientsin, and 61 branch Chambers.

JEHOL: One Chamber of Commerce with 4 branches.

HONAN: Honanfu, Taokowchen, and 52 branches.

SHANSI: Taiyuanfu and 22 branches.

SHANTUNG: Tsinanfu, Chefoo, Tsingtao, and 30 branches.

KANSU: Lanchowfu and 4 branches.

FENGTIEN: Mukden, Newchwang, Antung, and 61 branches.

KIRIN AND HEILUNGKIANG: Kirin, Changchun, Harbin, and 25 branches.

KUANGSI: Liuchowfu, Poseh, Sünchow, Lungchow, Kueilin, Wuchow, Kingyuan, Nanning, and 33 branches.

SHENSI: Hsianfu and 8 branches.

ANHUI: Anking, Tatung, Wuhu, Chingyangkuan, and 41 branches.

SINKIANG: Urumtsi.

KIANGSU: Soochow, Shanghai, Tungchow, Tsungming, Haichow, Tachang, and 40 branches. (The Shanghai (Chinese) General Chamber of Commerce was founded in 1901. *Chairman:* (1918) Chu Pao-san; *Vice-Chairman:* Shen Lien-fang.)

CHEKIANG: Hangchow and Ningpo.

KIANGNING: Nanking and 35 branches.

HUNAN: Changsha and 20 branches.

HUPEH: Wuchang, Hankow, and 23 branches.

SZECHUAN: Chengtu, Chungking, and 106 branches.

KIANGSI: Nanchang, Kingtehchen, Kiukiang, and 46 branches.

KUANGTUNG: Canton, Swatow, and 74 branches.

FUKIEN: Foochow, Amoy, and 44 branches.

YUNNAN: Yunnanfu and 9 branches.

KUEICHOW: Kueichowfu and 4 branches.

During 1915 the total number of chambers increased from 797 to 869, the number of shops enrolled from 196,336 to 230,431, and the officials of the chambers from 21,062 to 21,854. The total amount of membership fees increased from $1,023,556 to approximately $1,050,000.

B. ABROAD

Chinese Chambers of Commerce exist at the following places abroad: Singapore, Batu Pahat, Penang, Nagasaki, Manila, Batavia, Sourabaya, Samarang, Djogja (Java), Rangoon, Pantianak, Soengelpinjoe, Perak, Selangor, Sola (Java), Boeleleng (Java), Preager Regent (Java), Macassar, Vladivostok, Ampenan, Sandakan, San Francisco, Padang, Baroes (Sumatra), Tandjong, Bandong, Cochin China, Deli Medan (Sumatra), Osaka, Kobe, Victoria (British Columbia), Vancouver (B.C.), Polembong (Sumatra), Yokohama, Soekaboemi (Java), Bangkok, Khabarovsk, Rikolak, Sungkowang (Eastern Borneo), Panama, Toelengagoeng (Java), Mexico, and New York.

Chinese Orders and Decorations

The President of the Republic has the power of conferring patents of nobility and orders. These comprise the following:—

Titles of Merit, to which an annual allowance is attached.

Grand Title of Merit equivalent to Prince of the Royal Blood.
First Class ,, ,, ,, ,, Duke.
Second ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Marquis.
Third ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Count.
Fourth ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Viscount.
Fifth ,, ,, ,, ,, ,, Baron.

Civil Honours

Grand Cordon, confined to Sovereigns or Presidents.

Red Sash

Chiaoho—nine grades. Insignia, Cornflower. Sash for higher grades, ribbon for lower grades.

1st	Grade:	Yellow	with	red	border.
2nd	,,	,,	,,	white	,,
3rd	,,	Red	,,	,,	,,
4th	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
5th	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
6th	,,	Blue	,,	red	,,
7th	,,	,,	,,	,,	,,
8th	,,	White	,,	,,	,,
9th	,,	Black	,,	white	,,

Military and Naval Orders

White Eagle.
Wenfu—nine grades. Insignia, a Tiger.
Badge for Meritorious Service—four classes.

Commemoration Days of the Republic

The following days have been proclaimed as general holidays in commemoration of events connected with the establishment of the Republic in China:—

January 1. .	Establishment of the Nanking Government.
February 12 .	Union of North and South.
April 8 . .	Opening of the first Parliament.
July 12 . .	Chan Hsun's defeat on the occasion of the attempt to restore the Monarchy (1917).
December 25.	Rising in Yunnan.

Constabulary

The number of constabulary in China immediately prior to the outbreak of the Revolution was about 138,000. Since the Revolution it has not been possible to compile statistics. The Ministry of Interior states that the police are under no military obligations, and are under its sole control.

Freemasonry

Freemasonry is one of the oldest foreign institutions in China. In 1849 Hongkong and Shanghai were united in the "Province of China" under the English Constitution. In 1879 the first District Grand Lodge of North China received its patent, and since then the craft has steadily grown in numbers and influence. Under the U.S.A. Constitution Masonry was introduced into China in the 'sixties with the formation of the "Ancient Landmark" Lodge of Shanghai. A charter was granted in 1915 for the inauguration of a District Grand Lodge under the American Constitution. The ceremony took place in November, 1915, in the presence of more than three hundred Master Masons—a record gathering since the memorial service held on the death of the Grand Master, King Edward VII. *The History of Freemasonry in Shanghai and Northern China*, by R. S. Ivy, District Grand Master of Freemasonry in North China, contains a complete list of all regular lodges, Royal Arch Chapters, etc.

Lawyers in China

Under the Manchu Empire, the only lawyers who practised in China were foreign barristers, solicitors, and attorneys in the Treaty Ports. Lawyers were unknown in Chinese Courts. It is now proposed that they shall be admitted to practice in all grades of Chinese tribunals, and on September 16, 1912, the Ministry of Justice issued a series of Provisional Regulations defining their qualifications and duties, prescribing the method of admission to the Bar, and making provision for the discipline and organization of the Bar. These regulations are of a temporary nature, and are to remain in force only until the position and duties of lawyers are provided for by law.

Lawyers can be admitted to practice by two methods: either by proving that they are in possession of certain qualifications, such as the study of law in recognized schools and colleges in China and abroad for eighteen months to three years and upwards, or that they have been teaching one of the principal subjects prescribed for the lawyers' examination, in a recognized school or college, or have held the position of Judge or Procurator; or by taking an examination, the details of which have not yet been announced.

Those who have been convicted of other than political crimes, or are undischarged bankrupts, cannot become lawyers, whatever their qualifications.

On admission to practice, whether by proof that he possesses the necessary qualifications, or by examination, each lawyer has to pay a fee of $10. Application for admission to practice must be made to the Procurator of a High Court, where a roll of lawyers will be kept, copies of each entry being furnished to the Ministry of Justice for record. The certificate of admission is issued by the Ministry itself, and the lawyer who receives it is then free to practise in any Chinese Court. He must, however, register his name and produce his certificate in each Court in which he wishes to practise, and pay a fee of $2 to have his name recorded on the local roll.

Lawyers in actual practice may not hold any other post from which they draw a salary, but they may be members of the local or National Assemblies, teach in Government schools or colleges, or undertake certain official duties. They may not be engaged in any commercial business without the consent of the local Bar Society. Without showing good reason, they may not refuse to undertake any duties they are instructed to perform by a Judicial Yamen. If they decline to proceed with a client's case, they must notify him immediately, or they will be held responsible for any damage he may suffer. They may not purchase any articles or property which is the subject of litigation. They may not act for opposing parties, they may not conduct cases in which they have previously been concerned as Judge or Procurator or Arbitrator. They must maintain an office in the district in which they practise.

The regulations provide for the formation in each judicial centre of a Bar Society, to which every lawyer in actual practice must belong. The Procurator of the Court of the district will be entrusted with the duty of supervising the Bar Society, which shall, however, elect its own Chairman, Vice-Chairman, and Committee. The duties of the Bar Society are to maintain the morality of the legal profession, and to determine the scale of fees and costs. The Procurator may attend any meeting of the Bar Society, and demand a report of the proceedings.

A lawyer who violates the regulations of the Ministry of Justice or of the local Bar Society can be punished by a caution, a fine not exceeding $500, disbarment for not more than two years, or expulsion from the Bar. The form of punishment may be recommended by the Bar Society, but will be confirmed by a Court, and the offender has the right of appeal to the Supreme Court, if he is dissatisfied with the treatment meted out to him.

Newspapers

A few years ago China was without a native Press. To-day several hundred newspapers are in existence. The following list shows the numbers of those registered for transmission through the Chinese Post Office at twenty centres. The list, for which the editors are indebted to the Postmaster-General, is incomplete, as the returns from West and North-West China had not been received.

	FOREIGN.	CHINESE.
Peking	5[1]	49 (30 dailies)
Taiyuanfu	—	9
Kaifeng	—	10
Sianfu	—	6
Tientsin	9	35
Mukden	—	9
Newchwang	—	2
Kirin	—	3
Tsinanfu	—	14
Chefoo	1	4
Hankow	3	16
Nanchang	—	7
Anking	—	15
Nanking	—	6
Chinkiang	—	5
Soochow	—	10
Shanghai	25	73
Hangchow	—	13
Canton	—	39
Kweilin	1	5

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[1] Of the five dailies three are published in English (owned and edited by Chinese), one in French (French owned), and one Japanese-owned in Chinese.

Political Societies and Parties

Secret societies, many of which were created for political purposes, have existed in China for many centuries. The establishment of the Republic gave a new lease of life to former anti-dynastic associations, and brought numerous other societies into being, as the following account of those which were most prominent will show. The suppression of the Kuomintang towards the end of 1913 checked the activities of these political parties in general. The Chinputang remained in being, but organizations of a provincial bias (e.g. Anhui, Kuangtung, etc.), acquired the chief prominence in the capital from 1914 onwards. Although many of the following parties have since been dissolved, their record is of sufficient interest to find a place in these pages :—

THE TUNG MENG HUI (*Alliance Society*)

The party of which most was heard after the establishment of the Republic was that known as the Tung Meng Hui. It was started as an essentially revolutionary society in Tokio by Dr. Sun Yat-sen and Huang Hsing, as far back as 1901. At that time Chinese students studying in Japan had formed a number of independent revolutionary societies. The Tung Meng Hui was founded with the object of drawing all these societies together, and it attracted a large number of young Chinese to its fold. Directly and indirectly it played a very conspicuous part in the Revolution. After the Wuchang outbreak it was declared to be a political organization, with Dr. Sun Yat-sen as President, and Huang Hsing and General Li Yuan-hung as Vice-Presidents. It was joined by a large number of the prominent revolutionary leaders, and when the First Republican Cabinet was formed by Mr. Tang Shao-yi no fewer than five Ministers (including the Premier) were members of the party. In the National Council, however, it could only claim about one-third of the members as its adherents, and when opposed by a temporary coalition of the Kung Ho Tang and Tung Yi Kung Ho Tang, the Tung Meng Hui members were in a hopeless minority. Nevertheless it took the lead in advocating Party Government and the nomination of a Party Cabinet, and it not only vetoed the acceptance of any post in a Coalition Cabinet by its members, but, aided by the jealousies of the other parties, succeeded for a time in blocking all efforts to form a Cabinet composed of the most prominent men, regardless of party.

It was a frankly radical—in some respects even a socialistic—party. It aimed at the completion of the unification of the national body politic by the creation of homogeneous administrative machinery, and at the complete welding together of the various races in the Republic. It also sought to place China upon an equality with the great Powers. Its aims and organization are set forth in the following translation of its constitution :—

1. Our Society is constituted under the name of "Tung Meng Hui."
2. It aims at bringing about the consolidation of the Republic, and the diffusion of republican ideas among the masses.

3. Political Programme:
   (*a*) Centralization of power.
   (*b*) Development of local government.
   (*c*) Fusion of the five races.
   (*d*) Judicious application of socialistic theories.
   (*e*) The spread of compulsory education.
   (*f*) Equality of the sexes.
   (*g*) Obligatory military service.
   (*h*) Abolition of likin, and readjustment and reorganization of taxation.
   (*i*) To strive to place the country upon an equal footing with other nations.
   (*j*) Development of agricultural and colonizing enterprises and of the natural resources of the country.

4. The head office is at Peking, but branches will be established at all provincial capitals and important centres.

5. All adult citizens who have received a general education, and who are proposed by two members and accepted by a general meeting, and who undertake to conform to the regulations and further the aims of the Society, shall be eligible for membership.

6. All members must rigorously observe the regulations, and should work to further the aims of the Society.

7. The entrance fee is fixed at $1, and the annual subscription at $2.

8. Members are authorized to conduct propaganda outside, and to recruit adherents to the Society.

9. All ordinary members are eligible as officers of branches.

10. Members are forbidden to affiliate themselves with any other secret society.

11. Resolutions, in order to be considered, must be put forward and signed by at least five members.

12. The resignation of a member can only be accepted if the reasons stated are considered valid by the Council.

13. Any member whose subscription is more than one year in arrears shall be struck off the roll.

14. The names shall also be struck off the roll of those who, according to the decision of the Council, have violated the regulations, or committed acts likely adversely to affect the reputation of the Society.

15. The Society undertakes to protect effectively all those members to whom a mission has been confided, and to indemnify them if they have had to suffer in the course of executing such mission.

16. On the day of admission each member shall receive a badge and diploma, which must be presented at each meeting.

17. The Tung Meng Hui is presided over by a Grand Master, assisted by Vice-Grand Masters.

18. The Grand Master shall represent the whole Society, and direct all its affairs.

19. The Vice-Grand Masters shall assist the Grand Master, and act for him if occasion requires.

20. The Society shall have five bureaux:—

(*a*) General affairs.
(*b*) Foreign relations.
(*c*) Political affairs.
(*d*) Finance.
(*e*) Secretariat.

Each bureau shall be controlled by a Director.

21. The Directors of Bureaux shall be elected by general meeting, and invested by the Grand Master.

They shall nominate their own staffs, recruiting the same from members of the Society.

22. Duties of the Bureaux:

(*a*) The Bureau of General Affairs shall assist the Grand Master in all the Society's affairs, centralize the work of branches, interchange reports with them, and link them together.

(*b*) The Bureau of Foreign Relations will interchange reports with all foreign organisms of the Society.

(*c*) The Bureau of Political Affairs will direct its attention to politics, direct the actions of those members of the Assembly and the Government who are members of the Society, and see that the Society's programme is faithfully carried out.

(*d*) The Bureau of Finance shall manage all the revenues of the Society, as well as all commercial, agricultural, and industrial enterprises.

(*e*) The Secretariat will be in charge of the archives and correspondence.

23. Directors of Bureaux are elected for one year, but may be re-elected.

24. The Council of the Society shall be composed of representatives of the Peking and provincial branches, one, two, or four representatives being sent by each province.

25. The Council alone has power to amend or revise the statutes of the Society, and to announce special regulations as circumstances require.

26. The financial resources of the Society are derived from subscriptions, and revenues derived from commercial and other enterprises.

27. The Bureau of Finance shall render a statement of accounts of the Society each year, which shall be communicated to all members.

28. Meetings of the Society shall be of two kinds:

(*a*) General Meetings.
(*b*) Ordinary Meetings.

General Meetings, at which all branches should be represented, shall take place twice a year.

Ordinary Meetings shall take place quarterly, and are obligatory.

They can also be convoked whenever the Grand Master deems them necessary.

29. Branches shall observe the general regulations, but are free to make their own regulations in regard to matters of detail.

30. The Chairman of each Provincial Branch should send to the Head Office, quarterly, a list of members, a report on their work, and a statement in regard to the political situation.

31. Provincial Branches have the right to submit proposals to the Head Office.

32. Subscriptions received by the branches should be forwarded quarterly to the Head Office.

33. General regulations shall come into force immediately after promulgation.

34. Any proposal in regard to the modification of a regulation ought to be presented by five officers or ten members of the Society. It can only be discussed as a resolution if accepted by two-thirds of the members of the Council.

. . . .

The Tung Meng Hui derived the bulk of its membership from the provinces south of the Yangtze, most of the Cantonese who became conspicuous in the early phases of the Republic being members of this Society. Its campaign for Party Government, with the necessary corollary of a Party Cabinet, and its obstructive tactics in the National Council, rendered it, for a time, extremely unpopular, and its influence was rapidly waning when the amalgamation described later, and the formation of the Kuo Min Tang, took place in August, 1912.

Among the more prominent members of the Tung Meng Hui were Dr. Sun Yat-sen, and Messrs. Tang Shao-yi, Huang Hsing, Sung Chiao-jen, Tsai Yuan-pei, Wang Chung-hui, Wang Chao-ming, Yu Yu-ien, Chang Chi, Ching Yao-yueh, Hu Han-min, Liu Kuan-hsaing, Chen Chi-mei, Pai Wen-yu, Hu Ying, Chen Ping-kun, Sun Yu-yun, Wei Chen-tsu, Wang Chih-hsiang, Tien Tung, Chou Liao, Chang Yao-tseng, Li Chao-fu, and Lin Shen.

Among the Tutuhs who were members of the Society were those of Hunan, Kuangtung, Kiangsi, Chekiang, Fukien, Szechuan, Shensi, Shansi, Kuangsi, Anhui, and Kueichow.

. . . .

THE KUNG HO TANG (*Republican Party*)

The *Kung Ho Tang* was formed after the establishment of the Republic by the amalgamation of the Min She, Min Kuo Kung Hui, Kuo Min Hsieh Chin Hui Kuo Ming Tang, and Tung Yi Tang.

The *Min She* was organized by General Li Yuan-hung and his followers in Hupeh, and though it had no revolutionary significance at the time it was formed, it contained many of those who took a prominent part in directing the Revolution.

The *Ming Kuo Kung Hui* was a small political party organized by Chang Kuo-wei and others at Soochow.

The *Kuo Min Hsieh Chin Hui* had considerable influence in the North, and was originally organized in Peking.

The *Kuo Ming Tang* (not to be confused with the Coalition Party described later) was organized at Shanghai by Fan Hung-ting and Lu Hung-i.

The *Tung Yi Tang* was organized by Chang Ping-lin, editor of a Chinese paper called the *Minpao*, published in Tokio. He was formerly a member of the *Tung Meng Hui*, but left that Society owing to a difference of opinion with Dr. Sun and Huang Hsing. Many of those who belonged to the Constitutional Party in the old régime joined this party.

The Tung Yi Tang and the Min She, the most influential of the above parties, being unable to agree with the policy of the Tung Meng Hui, decided to form a new party by amalgamation with the three other parties mentioned above, and this plan was carried into effect at a meeting held at Shanghai on May 5, 1912. Later, Chang Ping-lin seceded with the members of the Tung Yi Tang, which subsequently maintained an independent, though uninfluential, existence. The *Kung Ho Tang*, however, continued to grow in strength and influence. It was reinforced by the inclusion of the Pao Huang Hui, under the leadership of Liang Chi-chao, and became a power in the Government and in the National Council.

More conservative than the Tung Meng Hui, it attracted to its membership many officials of the old régime, and particularly President Yüan Shih-kai's followers. Its members have almost consistently supported the President, and upon two occasions when attempts were made to impeach the Premier (Mr. Lu Cheng-hsiang) its members rendered such a step impossible by abstaining from attending the National Council, and thus making it impossible to obtain the required quorum. Its programme has been briefly stated as follows :—

(*a*) To bring the whole country under uniform administration by adopting nationalism.

(*b*) To solidify the strength of the State, and promote the progress of the Nation.

(*c*) To build up the country on the basis of peace and utility, in accordance with the general tendency of the world.

General Li Yuan-hung became President of the party, and other names connected with it are Chang Chien, Wu Ting-fang, Na Yen-tu, Hsiung Hsi-ling, Cheng Teh-chuan, Tang Shou-chien, Sun Wu, Sun Fa-hsuan, Chow Ta-lieh, Chi Chung-yin, Wang Jung-pao, and the Tutuhs of Chihli, Fengtien, Kirin, Heilunkiang, Shantung, and Hupeh. Its strength lay in North China, and its headquarters were at Peking.

THE TUNG YI KUNG HO TANG (*Coalition Republican Party*)

This party was established by Tsai Wo, Tutuh of Yunnan, and Yin Ju-li, during the time that the Provisional National Council was in session at Nanking. Originally it was on terms of close relationship with the Tung Meng Hui, many of whom were also members of this party. When the National Council removed to Peking the Tung Yi Kung Ho Tang held the balance of power in the Chamber, and whenever the Tung Meng Hui and the Kung Ho Tang members were in conflict, the party, by throwing its weight to one side or the other, could virtually control the Council. Though more closely allied upon the whole with the Tung Meng Hui (with whom it voted to reject the first nominations for Mr. Lu Cheng-hsiang's Cabinet) it did not always co-operate with them, as was shown by the result of the voting upon the second list of nominations, which still failed to meet the Tung Meng Hui's demand for a strictly Party Cabinet.

Its programme was as follows :—

1. By reorganizing the administrative areas to effect unity under the Central Government.

2. By reform of the fiscal system to effect the equitable incidence of taxation.

3. By measures of social reform to effect an improvement in the condition of the people.

4. By the adoption of a protective trade system to develop the industrial life of the people.

5. By the adoption of a nominal gold standard to pave the way for currency reform.

6. By the adoption of a system of national banks to effect the regulation of monetary organs.

7. To complete with all possible speed the great trunk lines of railway, and to develop every means of communication.

8. To enforce national military education, and to develop professional education as rapidly as possible.

9. To develop the Army and Navy and adopt some form of conscription.

10. To protect those who have emigrated to foreign lands, and to encourage the cultivation of waste lands.

11. To spread civilization to all the races in China, and thereby to assimilate and amalgamate those races.

12. By attaching importance to international affairs to maintain Chinese rights amongst the Powers.

Of this party the best-known members were Yin Ju-li, Wu Ching-lien-Tang Hua-ling, and Ku Chung-hsiu.

The *Tung Yi Kung Ho Tang* became amalgamated with the Tung Meng Hui and other societies when the Kuo Min Tang was formed in August, 1912.

THE KUO MIN TANG

As already stated, the demand of the Tung Meng Hui for a Party Government and Cabinet was not universally popular, and the obstructive tactics of the party in the National Council seriously endangered its influence. The following account of the steps taken to bring about the formation of the Kuo Min Tang (Democratic Party) is taken from the official minutes communicated to the Native Press.

After the Cabinet crisis in July, 1912, the Tung Meng Hui decided to discuss plans for reforming the Society, and certain members expressed the view that this end could best be achieved by amalgamation with other parties. Chang Yao-tseng, Ping Kong, and Wen Chun first approached the representatives of the Kuo Min Kung Chin Hui, who suggested three conditions: the alteration of the name of the Society; a revision of its policy; and general reorganization. On the representatives of the Tung Meng Hui concurring with this proposal the scheme for amalgamation began to assume definite shape. However, the opposition of certain extreme members of the Tung Meng Hui brought negotiations to a standstill for the time being. During the interval a basis of agreement was reached between the Kuo Min Kung Chin Hui and the Tung Yi Kung Ho Tang, the Kuo Ming Kung Tang (Citizen's Public Party) and the Kung Ho Hsieh Chin Hui (Union and Progressive Society). The programme agreed upon by this coalition was as follows:—

(*a*) Strongly to maintain the union of the country.
(*b*) To develop self-government.
(*c*) To abolish race distinctions.
(*d*) To foster social reform.
(*e*) To maintain international peace.

Each of the four parties above mentioned elected two representatives, who met in conference and agreed upon the proposed regulations. On hearing of this movement the Tung Meng Hui approached the new coalition and arrived at an understanding whereby the five parties were to be united. The name selected for the new combination was "Kuo Min Tang" (Democratic Party). The programme provisionally adopted was the following:—

(*a*) To maintain the union of North and South.
(*b*) To promote local self-government.
(*c*) To remove race distinctions.
(*d*) To raise the standard of living and improve the economic conditions of the people.
(*e*) To maintain international peace.

The following nine representatives were selected from the five societies to arrange the final details of amalgamation:—

Sun Yat-sen, Huang Hsing, Sung Chiao-jen (ex-Minister of Agriculture and Forestry), Tsai Ao (Tutuh of Yunnan), Chen Chin-tao (Financial

Expert and ex-Finance Minister in the Provisional Government at Nanking), Wu Ching-lien (Chairman of the National Council), Wang Chung-hui (ex-Minister of Justice and now Chief Adviser to the Waichiaopu), Tsen Chun-hsuan (ex-Viceroy under the Manchu Government, and also Imperial Commissioner to pacify Szechuan), and Chang Feng-hui.

Certain of these representatives met several times in the Anhui Guild buildings at Peking and elected Sung Chiao-jen to draft a constitution for the new party. In this manner the Kuo Min Tang came into existence. Its headquarters are temporarily fixed at Peking. All the offices of the five parties which had entered this combination were abolished.

The terms of amalgamation were definitely accepted at a meeting held at Peking on August 13, 1912. Dr. Sun and Huang Hsing telegraphed to all branches of the Tung Meng Hui endorsing the amalgamation.

According to the manifesto of the Kuo Min Tang "a good or a bad Government depends upon the power which backs it up. If that power is strong, the Government will be strong. If that power is weak, the Government will be weak. The case is true with any Government, whether monarchical or republican. China now has changed from a monarchy into a republic, and the power backing her up has shifted from the Emperor to the people. The responsibilities before us are great and numerous, and since not every one of us can participate in the country's affairs, leaders must be recognized and some organization resorted to as a working machinery. Since the inauguration of the Republican Government, political parties have sprung into existence like mushrooms. While some are well organized and conducted, not a few are bodies of men which are not worthy the name of political parties. Their action does not conform with their principles, and they stand more for ignoble gains than for public good. The larger the number of parties is the keener their conflict will be. How seriously has party strife delayed the formation of the Cabinet and retarded the progress of the country! Distressed at the present situation, the five parties above named have consulted and deemed it wise and profitable to join hands to work for the welfare of the new Republic."

The objects of the *Kuo Min Tang* were set forth as follows :—

1. To protect and uphold a strong and united Government, and to organize a system of centralization so that all constructive measures will be systematized and co-ordinated.

2. To promote and support local government, and to develop in our people such powers of self-government as are necessary for a Republic, so as to be able to amend the deficiences of the Central Government.

3. To carry out effectively all measures to unite the different races in China, and to practise real equality and civilization so that our people will soon be strong and united.

4. To adopt the principles of social service, to prepare the way for the introduction of Socialism in order to facilitate and better the standard of

living, and to employ the powers and strength of the Government quickly and evenly to develop the resources of our country.

5. To cultivate friendly feelings with foreign nations, and to use our wisdom in, and show our due respect for, our diplomacy with them, so as to be able to hold the balance of power and to devote a good part of attention to our self-improvement.

On the night of November 4, 1913, the President issued three long mandates, countersigned by the Premier and the Minister of the Interior, ordering the immediate dissolution of the Kuomintang throughout the country, reciting the documentary evidence which justified him in regarding the Kuomintang as a seditious organization, and ordering the Minister of the Interior to deprive all members of the National Assembly who had not left the Kuomintang before the Hukow outbreak in July of their election certificates and badges. All that night and for the two following days the police were busily engaged in domiciliary visits to the residences of the Kuomintang members, seizing incriminating or suspicious documents, and confiscating their certificates and the badges without which they could not enter the Assembly Chambers.

MINCHU TANG

A later political organization was the *Minchu Tang*. The nucleus of the party was formed by men who organized the Reform Party both in China and abroad. Its members were for the most part scholars, and it concerns itself more with the future than with the political questions of the moment, aiming at the development of true republican citizenship in China. The *Minchu Tang* prided itself on achieving a happy medium between radicalism and conservatism.

CHINPU TANG

A coalition of several small parties, organized by Liang Chi-chao to combat the Kuomintang. It supported the President and Central Government, and survived the wreck of political parties in 1913. In 1918 it still wielded influence in Peking.

KUNG MING TANG

On the 20th of the 8th month of the 2nd year preparations were made to start this organization, and on the 7th day of the 9th month it was fully organized. The promoters of this Tang were Liang Shih-yi, Yi Kung-chieh, and 10 others. There were more than 240 members of the late National Assembly belonging to this Tang. The Tang established its branches in Chihli, Shensi, Kiangsi, Fukien, Kuangtung, Kirin, Kiangsu, Chekiang, etc., and had a total number of more than 40,000 members. It had a Board of Councillors, containing 54 members; and five sections, namely, General Section, Political Section, Intercourse Section, Despatch Section, and Account Section, each of which had several officers to manage its affairs. The object of this Tang was "to use the power of the nation for the real consolidation of the administration of the Government, with a hope to advance the blessings and interest of the people."

MIN HSIEN TANG

Being tired with the constant quarrels between the members of the Chinpu Tang and Kuo Min Tang, in the National Assembly, more than a dozen of the leading M.P.'s of both of the above parties came to an understanding to form a Tang, with the sole object to avoid needless quarrels in both Houses. Before this Tang did anything to carry out its object, the orders for the dissolution of the Kuo Min Tang and the confiscation of election certificates for the M.P.'s of that Tang were issued. Thus many of the M.P.'s of this new Tang were unseated, and the Tang was dissolved of its own accord.

CHIAOTUNG

An Association formed in 1917 with the object of bringing about peace in China. It includes in its membership a number of prominent people, among them being Chow Tze-chi, Chu Chi-chien, Chu Fu, Feng Kuo-chung, Hsiung Hsi-ling, Liang Chi-chao, Liang Shih-yi, Li Ching-hsi, Tao Lun-kuai, Tuan Tsu-yun, Wang Kuo-min, and Yen Chia-kuai.

CHOUANHUI

This so-called Society of Peace was formed in the summer of 1915 and at once took a prominent part in the movement for the re-establishment of the monarchy. Its organizers were Sun Yu-yun, former Tutuh of Anhui and member of the Kuomintang, Yang Tu, chief of the National Historical Bureau, Dr. Fen Yu, an English-educated naval student—all three members of the Tsanchengyuan—and three pardoned revolutionaries, Lui Sze-pai, Li Hsieh-ho and Hu Ying.

The Queue

The queue was denounced by the revolutionaries from the outset of their operations as a token of Manchu bondage. On November 20, 1911, the Tzechengyuan adopted a resolution in favour of the abolition of the queue. In many parts of South and Mid China the queue very quickly disappeared, and any Chinese who appeared in public wearing it would court the risk of being compelled to submit to its removal. The official classes, from the President downwards, all dispensed with the queue, but the bulk of the populace in North China continued to wear it for some time. All republican troops became queueless, and in some provinces the Tutuhs ordered the removal of all queues by certain dates. The Manchu Princes were instructed by the Imperial Court to remove their queues on or before January 1, 1915.

Trade Marks

The absence of any Trade-mark laws in China led the Powers to protect their respective subjects trading in the country by mutual application of the regulations governing the countries of the Trade Marks Union. At the same time they have endeavoured to persuade the Chinese Government to promulgate the necessary laws on the subject. Thus in the Mackay Treaty, September, 1902, Article VII read :—

Inasmuch as the British Government affords protection to Chinese trade-marks against infringement, imitation or colourable imitation by British subjects, the Chinese Government undertake to afford protection to British trade-marks against infringement, imitation or colourable imitation by Chinese subjects.

The Chinese Government further undertake that the Superintendents of Northern and of Southern Trade shall establish offices within their respective jurisdictions under control of the Imperial Maritime Customs where foreign trade-marks may be registered on payment of a reasonable fee.

The Treaty between China and Japan, signed October 8, 1903, stipulated (Article V) :—

The Chinese Government agree to make and faithfully enforce such regulations as are necessary for preventing Chinese subjects from infringing registered trade-marks held by Japanese subjects.

The Chinese Government likewise agree to make such regulations as are necessary for affording protection to registered copyrights held by Japanese subjects in the books, pamphlets, maps and charts written in the Chinese language, and specially prepared for the use of Chinese people.

It is further agreed that the Chinese Government shall establish registration offices where foreign trade-marks and copyrights, upon application for the protection of the Chinese Government, shall be registered in accordance with the provisions of the regulations to be hereafter framed by the Chinese Government for the purpose of protecting trade-marks and copyrights.

It is understood that Chinese trade-marks and copyrights, properly registered according to the provisions of the laws and regulations of Japan, will receive similar protection against infringement in Japan.

This Article shall not be held to protect against due process of law any Japanese or Chinese subject who may be the author, proprietor or seller of any publication calculated to injure the well-being of China.

Article IX of the Treaty, also signed on October 8, 1903, between the United States and China, read :—

Whereas the United States undertakes to protect the citizens of any country in the exclusive use within the United States of any lawful trade-marks, provided that such country agrees by Treaty or Convention to give like protection to citizens of the United States :—

Therefore the Government of China, in order to secure such protection in the United States for its subjects, now agrees to fully protect any citizen, firm or corporation of the United States in the exclusive use in the Empire of China of any lawful trade-mark to the exclusive use of which in the United States they are entitled, or which they have adopted and used, or intend to adopt and use as soon as registered, for inclusive use within the Empire of China. To this end the Chinese Government agrees to issue by its proper authorities Proclamations, having the force of law, forbidding all subjects of China from infringing on, imitating, colourably imitating or knowingly passing off an imitation of trade-marks belonging to citizens of the United States, which shall have been registered by the proper authorities of the United States at such offices as the Chinese Government will establish for such purpose, on payment of a reasonable fee, after due investigation by the Chinese authorities, and in compliance with reasonable Regulations.

Articles X and XI dealt in a similar way with patents and copyright.

Reciprocal protection of trade-marks in China has been arranged by special Agreements between Great Britain on the one part and Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, and the United States on the other.

In accordance with its Treaty undertakings, the Chinese Government set about to frame Trade-mark Regulations. The first draft drawn up by the Ministry of Commerce in 1904 proved unacceptable to the representatives of the several Powers concerned, and in 1905 the foreign Ministers submitted to the Chinese Government a code embodying the views of their respective Governments. After an exchange of correspondence with Prince Ching, the subject was allowed to drop until November, 1906, when a second draft set of Regulations was submitted by the Chinese Government. This draft, which was based on the rejected Code of 1904 rather than on the suggestions of the Powers, was also repudiated by the Powers concerned, and during 1907 and 1908 the matter was from time to time brought to the attention of the Chinese Government. No definite action on the part of the latter ensued, and the subject was again allowed to drop, while the British Government was negotiating an Agreement with Japan for reciprocal protection of trade-marks in China.

China is still without Trade-mark Regulations having the force of law.

APPENDIX

THE REVISED IMPORT TARIFF

THE following is the draft of the Chinese Tariff as revised by the Tariff Revision Commission and submitted to the Foreign Ministers in Peking for submission to their respective Governments for ratification (December, 1918):—

Cotton and Cotton Goods

Name of Article.	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Cotton Piece Goods, Grey—			
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 in. by 41 yards:			
(*a*) Weight 7 lb. and under	piece	1·817	0·091
(*b*) Weight over 7 lb. and not over 9 lb. .	,,	2·681	0·13
(*c*) Weight over 9 lb. and not over 11 lb. .	,,	3·530	0·18
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 in. by 41 yards and with more than 110 threads per square inch:			
(*a*) Weight over 11 lb. and not over 12½ lb.	,,	3·933	0·20
(*b*) Weight over 12½ lb. and not over 15½ lb.	,,	4·668	0·23
(*c*) Weight over 15½ lb.	,,	5·400	0·27
Grey Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 40 in. by 41 yards and with 110 threads or less per square inch:			
(*a*) Weight over 11 lb. and not over 15½ lb.	,,	3·293	0·16
(*b*) Weight over 15½ lb.	,,	4·000	0·20
Drills and Jeans, Grey, not over 31 ins. by 31 yards.	,,	2·960	0·15
Drills and Jeans, Grey, not over 31 ins. by 41 yards:			
(*a*) Weight 12½ lb. and under . . .	,,	3·900	0·20
(*b*) Weight over 12½ lb.	,,	3·215	0·16
T-Cloths, Grey, not over 34 in. by 25 yards:			
(*a*) Weight 7 lb. and under	,,	1·722	0·086
(*b*) Weight over 7 lb..	,,	2·312	0·12
T-Cloths, Grey, over 34 in. but not over 37 in. by 25 yards	,,	2·900	0·15
Imitation Native Cotton Cloth (including Machine-made), Grey, not over 24 in. wide and with not more than 110 threads per square inch	picul	32·400	1·60

Name of Article.	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Cotton Flannel or Flannelette of Plain or Twill Weave, Grey :			
(*a*) Not over 32 in. by 31 yards . . .	piece	3·484	0·17
(*b*) Over 32 in. but not over 40 in. by 31 yards	,,	4·800	0·24
Cotton Piece Goods, White or Dyed— (irrespective of finish) :—			
Plain White Shirtings and Sheetings, not over 37 in. by 42 yards	,,	4·183	0·21
White Irishes, not over 37 in. by 42 yards .	,,	5·096	0·25
Drill and Jeans, White, not over 31 in. by 32 yards	,,	3·296	0·16
Drills and Jeans, White, not over 31 in. by 42 yards	,,	4·348	0·22
T-Cloths, White, and Mexicans, not over 32 in. by 41 yards	,,	3·614	0·18
Dimities, Piqués, Vestings, Quiltings, and Bedford Cords, White, not over 30 in. by 30 yards	,,	4·749	0·24
Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, White, Plain, not over 46 in. by 12 yards	,,	0·810	0·041
Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, White, Figured, not over 46 in. by 12 yards .	value	5 per cent.	—
Cambrics, Lawns, and Muslins, Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over 46 in. by 12 yards .	,,	5 per cent.	—
White or Dyed Plain or Figured Muslins, Lawns, Cambrics, Limbrics, Pongees, Brocades, and Striped, Spotted, Corded, and Figured Shirtings :			
(*a*) Not over 30 in. by 31 yards . . .	piece	4·443	0·22
(*b*) Over 30 in. but not over 37 in. by 42 yards	,,	5·000	0·25
Lenos, White or Dyed, not over 31 in. by 30 yards	,,	2·161	0·11
Leno Brocades, White or Dyed	value	5 per cent.	—
Dyed Shirtings and Sheetings, Plain :			
(*a*) Not over 30 in. by 33 yards . . .	piece	2·7555	0·14
(*b*) Not over 30 in. and over 33 yards but not over 43 yards	,,	2·5905	0·18
(*c*) Not over 36 in. by 21 yards . . .	,,	2·1048	0·11
(*d*) Not over 36 in. and over 21 yards but not over 33 yards	,,	3·30759	0.17
(*e*) Not over 36 in. and over 33 yards but not over 43 yards	,,	4·30989	0.22
Dyed Drills and Jeans, Plain :			
(*a*) Not over 31 in. by 33 yards . . .	,,	3·600	0·18
(*b*) Not over 31 in. and over 33 yards but not over 43 yards	,,	4·676	0·23

	Name of Article.	Agreed Value Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
	Dyed T-Cloths, Embossed Cantons, Alpacianos, Real and Imitation Turkey Reds, not over 32 in. by 32 yards:			
	(*a*) Weight 3¼ lb. and under . . .	piece	1·889	0·094
	(*b*) Weight over 3¼ lb. but not over 5¼ lb.	,,	2·400	0.12
	(*c*) Weight over 5¼ lb.	,,	3·320	0·17
25	Mercerized Crimps, White, Dyed, or Printed, Plain or Figured, not over 32 in. by 32 yards	,,	5·478	0·27
	Oatmeal Crapes, White or Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over 33 in. by 33 yards	,,	5·265	0·26
27	Cotton Crape (excluding Oatmeal Crapes), Grey, Bleached, Dyed, Printed, or Dyed in the Yarn:			
	(*a*) Not over 15 in. wide . . .	value	5 per cent.	—
	(*b*) Over 15 in. but not over 30 in. wide .	yard	0·106	0.0053
	Lastings, Italians, Satteens, Ribs, Cords, Moreens, Beatrice Twills, Tientsin Twills, Satteen Drills, Satteen Stripes, Repps, and Imitation (Weft-faced) Venetians, White or Dyed, Plain or Figured, not over 33 in. by 33 yards .	piece	4·540	0·23
	Poplins and Venetians, White or Dyed, Plain, not over 33 in. by 33 yards .	,,	8·0946	0·40
	Poplins and Venetians, White or Dyed, Figured, not over 33 in. by 33 yards .	,,	10·000	0·50
31	Cotton Flannel or Flannelette of Plain or Twill Weave:			
	(1) White, Dyed, or Printed, or Dyed in the Yarn, exclusive of Duplex or Reversible Prints:			
	(*a*) Not over 25 in. by 15 yards .	,,	1·400	0·07
	(*b*) Over 25 in. but not over 30 in. by 15 yards.	,,	1·700	0·085
	(*c*) Over 25 in. but not over 30 in. by 31 yards	,,	3·600	0·18
	(*d*) Over 30 in. but not over 36 in. by 15 yards	,,	2·000	0·10
	(*e*) Over 30 in. but not over 36 in. by 31 yards.	,,	4·300	0·22
	(2) Duplex or Reversible Prints . .	value	5 per cent.	—
	Dyed Cotton Spanish Stripes:			
	(*a*) Not over 32 in. by 20 yards . .	piece	2·241	0·11
	(*b*) Over 32 in. but not over 64 in. by 20 yards	,,	4·482	0·22
	Dyed Cotton Velvets, and Velveteens, Plain, not over 26 in. wide . .	yard	0·2884	0·014
34	Cotton Velvets, and Velveteens, Printed, Figured, or Embossed, Velvet and Velveteen Cords, Corduroys, Fustians, Moleskins, and Plushes . . .	value	5 per cent.	—

	Name of Article	Agreed Value Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
35	Canvas, Cotton (including Cotton Duck), for Sails, etc.	yard	0·300	0·015
36	Stockinet or Knitted Tissue:			
	(*a*) Raised	picul	44·000	2·20
	(*b*) Not Raised	value	5 per cent.	—

Cotton Piece Goods, Printed—

	Name of Article	Per	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
37	Printed Cambrics, Printed Lawns, Printed Muslins, Printed Shirtings, Printed Sheetings, Printed T-Cloths (including those known as Blue and White Printed T-Cloths), Printed Drills, Printed Jeans, Printed Diagonal Twills, Twill Cretonnes, Printed Silesias, Printed Repps (excluding Repp Cretonnes):			
	(*a*) Not over 20 in. wide	,,	5 per cent.	—
	(*b*) Over 20 in. but not over 46 in. by 12 yards	piece	1·020	0·051
	(*c*) Over 20 in. but not over 32 in. by 30 yards	,,	2·302	0·12
	(*d*) Over 32 in. but not over 42 in. by 30 yards	,,	3·094	0·15
	Printed Mercerized Crimps. *See* No. 25			
	Printed Oatmeal Crapes and Oatmeal Crape Cretonnes, not over 32 in. by 30 yards	,,	2·705	0·14
	Printed Cotton Crape. *See* No. 27.			
	Printed Turkey Reds, Real and Imitation, not over 31 in. by 25 yards	,,	2·068	0·10
	Printed Lenos, not over 31 in. by 30 yards	,,	2·350	0·12
	Printed Satteens and Satinets, Printed Brocades (including Printed Fancy Woven Stripes or Checks), Printed Italians, Printed Damasks, Printed Venetians, Printed Lastings, Printed Beatrice Twills, Printed Cords, Printed Poplins, Printed Moreens, not over 32 in. by 30 yards	,,	5·000	0·25
	Printed Flannelette. *See* No. 31.			
42	Duplex or Reversible Prints of Shirting Weave and one colour only, not over 32 in. by 30 yards	,,	3·000	0·15
	Printed Velvets and Velveteens. *See* No. 34.			

	Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
43	Printed Domestic Cretonnes, Printed Satteen Cretonnes, Printed Repp Cretonnes, Printed Embossed Figures, Printed Art Muslins and Casement Cloth, Printed Cotton Coatings, Trouserings, and Gabardines, and all other Duplex or Reversible Prints except those enumerated in Classes 37 and 42 . . , . .	value	5 per cent.	—
	Printed Blankets. *See* No. 45.			
	Printed Handkerchiefs. *See* No. 48.			
	The term "Printed" in this Tariff includes Pigment Style, Direct Printing Style, Steam Style, Discharge Style, Madder or Dyed Style, Resist Style, Resist Pad Style, Metal Style, and so forth, irrespective of finish.			
	The term "Duplex or Reversible Print" in this Tariff includes all Printed Cottons having (*a*) a different pattern printed on each side of the cloth; (*b*) the same design on both sides of the cloth, whether printed with one or more rollers.			
	Cotton Piece Goods, Yarn dyed—			
	Cotton Crape. *See* No. 27.			
	Cotton Flannel, or Flannelette. *See* No. 31.			
	Stockinet. *See* No. 36.			
	Not otherwise enumerated . . .	,,	,,	—
	Cotton Piece Goods, not otherwise enumerated	,,	,,	—
	Cotton, Raw; Cotton Thread, Cotton Yarn, and Goods made of Cotton—			
	Ankle Bands, Plain or Decorated . .	picul	80·000	4·00
	Bags, New. *See* No, 529 . . .	,,	40·000	2·00
45	Blankets, Plain, Printed, or Jacquard (including those with a taped or whipped edge of silk or other material), and Blanket Cloth	,,	40·000	2·00
	Canvas. *See* No. 35.			
	Crape. *See* No. 27.			
	Counterpanes, Honeycomb or Alhambra—			
	(*a*) Not over 2½ yards long	,,	45·000	2·25
	(*b*) Over 2½ yards long . . .	value	5 per cent.	—
	Embroidered Edging or Insertion, Machine-made	,,	,,	—
	Flannelette. *See* No. 31.			

	Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value. *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate. *Hk. Tls.*
48	Handkerchiefs, neither Embroidered nor Initialled—			
	(1) White, Dyed, or Printed, Hemmed (but not with a drawn-thread hem)—			
	(*a*) Not over 13 in. square	dozen	0·220	0·011
	(*b*) Over 13 in. square but not over 18 in. square	,,	0·360	0·018
	(*c*) Over 18 in. square but not over 30 in. square	,,	0·530	0·027
	(2) White, Dyed, or Printed, with drawn-thread hem—			
	(*a*) Not over 13 in. square	,,	0·360	0·018
	(*b*) Over 13 in. square but not over 18 in. square	,,	0·750	0·038
	(*c*) Over 18 in. square but not over 30 in. square	,,	0·920	0·046
	(3) Printed Handkerchiefs, Unhemmed—			
	(*a*) Not over 18 in. square	,,	0·190	0·01
	(*b*) Over 18 in. square but not over 25 in. square	,,	0·640	0·032
	(*c*) Over 25 in. square but not over 29 in. square	,,	0·800	0·04
	(*d*) Over 29 in. square but not over 34 in. square	,,	1·330	0·052
	Knitted Clothing, Raised (including that stitched with Silk Thread and with facings of silk or other material)	picul	74·000	3·70
	Raw Cotton	,,	16·000	0·80
	Singlets or Drawers, not Raised (including those stitched with Silk Thread and with facings of Silk or other material)	dozen	2·800	0·14
	Socks and Stockings—			
	(*a* Not Raised on either side—			
	(1) Made of Ungassed or Unmercerised Thread	picul	70·000	3·50
	(2) Made of Gassed or Mercerised Thread or stitched or embroidered with Silk	,,	150·000	7·50
	(*b*) Raised	value	5 per cent.	—
	(*c*) Others	,,	,,	—
	Stockinet. *See* No. 36.			
	Towels—			
	(*a*) Turkish	picul	50·000	2·50
	(*b*) Honeycomb or Huckaback	,,	44·000	2·20
	Thread, Dyed or Undyed (irrespective of finish—			
	(1) Sewing Cotton—			
	(*a*) In ball or skeins—			
	3-cord	,,	100·000	5·00
	6-cord	,,	190·000	9·50

Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value. *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate. *Hk. Tls.*
(1) Sewing Cotton (*continued*)—			
(*b*) On spools or cops—			
2-cord, 50 yards or less	gross	0·586	0·029
3-cord, 50 yards or less	,,	0·788	0·039
6-cord, 50 yards or less	,,	1,458	0·073
Other lengths in proportion.			
(2) Crochet or Embroidery Cotton, in skeins or balls	picul	82·449	4·10
Waste Cotton	,,	9·600	0·48
Yarn—			
(1) Grey (irrespective of fold)—			
(*a*) Counts up to and including 17	,,	25·500	1·28
(*b*) Counts above 17 and up to and including 23	,,	27·668	1·38
(*c*) Counts above 23 and up to and including 35	,,	38·000	1·90
(*d*) Counts above 35 and up to and including 45	,,	43·600	2·18
(*e*) Counts above 45	value	5 per cent.	—
(2) Dyed, Bleached, Gassed, Mercerised, etc.	,,	..	—

WOOL, SILK, LINEN, AND HEMP GOODS

Flax, Hemp, and Jute Goods—

	Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value. *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate. *Hk. Tls.*
57	Gunny Bags, New	picul	8·480	0·42
58	,, ,, Old	value	5 per cent.	—
	Hemp	picul	14·000	0·70
60	Hemp or Hessian Bags, New	,,	18·900	0·95
61	,, ,, ,, Old	value	5 per cent.	—
	Hessian Cloth	picul	18·000	0·90
	Canvas of Hemp and Jute for Sails, etc.	yard	0·38165	0·019
	Canvas Linen (elastic), for Tailoring	value	5 per cent.	—
	Tarpaulin of Hemp or Jute	yard	0·229	0·011

Silk Goods and Silk Mixtures—

Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value. *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate. *Hk. Tls.*
Silk Piece Goods (all Silk), Plain, Figured, or Brocaded	value	5 per cent.	—
Silk Plushes and Silk Velvets, Pure	catty	10·984	0·55
Silk Seal, with Cotton back	,,	2·9418	0·15
Silk Socks and Stockings, Knitted (including those made of Artificial Silk)[1]	,,	7·000	0·35
Silk Mixture Plushes and Velvets (i.e. made of Silk mixed with other fibrous material, with Cotton back)	,,	2·6537	0·13
Silk and Cotton Satins, White or Dyed in the piece[1]—			
(*a*) Plain	,,	2·633	0·13
(*b*) Figured	,,	3·233	0·16

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[1] The French Delegation stated that it could not agree to the duty treatment proposed for these goods until it had referred the question to its Government.

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value. *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate. *Hk. Tls.*
Silk and Cotton Satins, Dyed in the Yarn[1]	catty	4·000	0·20
Silk and Cotton Mixtures not otherwise enumerated	value	5 per cent.	—
Silk Ribbons, all Silk and Mixtures	,,	,,	—
Wool and Cotton Unions—			
Union Shirtings, not over 33 in. wide	yard	0·4853	0·024
Cloth made of remanufactured Wool and Cotton, such as Meltons, Vicunas, Beavers, Army Cloths, Union Cloths, Leather Cloths, Presidents (including Cloth containing a small quantity of new Wool for facing purposes), not over 56 in. wide	,,	0·800	0·04
Italian Cloth, Plain or Figured, Alpacas, Lustres, Orleans, and Sicilians	value	5 per cent.	—
Wool and Woollen Goods—			
Wool, Sheep's	picul	17·000	0·85
Blankets and Rugs	pound	0·560	0·028
Bunting, not over 24 in. by 40 yards	piece	6·560	0·33
Camlets, not over 31 in. by 62 yards	,,	15·600	0·78
Flannel, not over 33 in. wide	yard	0·480	0·024
Lastings, Plain, Figured, or Crêped, not over 31 in. by 32 yards	piece	14·620	0·73
Llama Braid	picul	150·000	7·50
Long Ells, not over 31 in. by 25 yards	piece	6·657	0·33
Russian, Broad, Superfine, Medium, and Habit Cloth, not over 76 in. wide	yard	1·520	0·076
Spanish Stripes, not over 64 in. wide	,,	0·636	0·032
All Woollen and Worsted Yarn and Cord, including Berlin Wool	picul	120·000	6·00
METALS			
Aluminium	value	5 per cent.	—
Aluminium Sheets	,,	,,	—
Antifriction Metal	,,	,,	—
Antimony Regulus and Refined	picul	14·000	0·70
Antimony Ore	value	5 per cent.	—
Brass and Yellow Metal—			
Bars and Rods	picul	30·183	1·50
Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, Washers, and Accessories	value	5 per cent.	—
Ingots	picul	30·183	1·50
Nails	,,	36·765	1·80
,, Old (fit only for remanufacture)	value	5 per cent.	—
Screws	,,	,,	—
Sheets and Plates	picul	30·183	1·50
Tubes	,,	47·809	2·40
Wire	,,	30·183	1·50

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[1] The French Delegation stated that it could not agree to the duty treatment proposed for these goods until it had referred the question to its Government.

Name of Article.	Agreed Value Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
Copper—			
Bars and Rods	picul	33·950	1·70
Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers	value	5 per cent.	—
Ingots and Slabs	picul	28·000	1·40
Nails	,,	47·385	2·40
,, Old (fit only for remanufacture)	value	5 per cent.	—
Sheets and Plates	picul	33·950	1·70
Tacks	value	5 per cent.	—
Tubes	,,	,,	—
Wire	picul	33·950	1·70
,, Cable	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Rope	,,	,,	—
Iron and Steel, Ungalvanized (not including Bamboo, Spring, and Tool Steel):			
Anvils, Swage-blocks, Anchors, and Parts of, and Forgings (each weighing in every case 25 lb. or over)	picul	11·484	0·57
Bolts, Nuts, and Washers	value	5 per cent.	—
Castings, Rough	picul	5·132	0·26
Chains, and Parts of	,,	7·667	0·38
Cobbles, Wire Shorts, Defective Wire, Bar Croppings, and Bar Ends, Galvanized or Ungalvanized	,,	2·658	0·13
Crossings for Railways	value	5 per cent.	—
Fishplates and Spikes	,,	,,	—
Hoops	picul	5·451	0·27
Old (fit only for remanufacture)	,,	1·946	0·10
Nail-rod, Bars, Twisted or Deformed Bars, Tess, Channels, Angles, Joists, Girders, and other Structural Sections or Shapes	,,	4·080	0·20
Nails, Wire and Cut	,,	5·946	0·30
Pig and Kentledge	,,	2·000	0·10
Pipes, Tubes, and Pipe and Tube Fittings	value	5 per cent.	—
Plate Cuttings	picul	2·311	0·12
Rails	,,	3·120	0·16
Rivets	,,	6·287	0·31
Screws	value	5 per cent.	—
Sheets and Plates ⅛ of an inch thick or more	picul	4·000	0·20
Sheets and Plates under ⅛ of an inch thick	,,	5·000	0·25
Tacks	,,	9·047	0·45
Wire	,,	5·241	0·26
Wire Rope, Galvanized or Ungalvanized, with or without fibre core	,,	14·924	0·75
Steel, Tool, and Spring :—			
Bamboo Steel	,,	5·486	0·27
Spring Steel	,,	6·420	0·32
Tool Steel (including High-Speed Steel)	value	5 per cent.	—
Iron and Steel, Galvanized :—			
Bolts, Nuts, Rivets, and Washers	,,	5 per cent.	—
Pipes, Tubes, and Tube Fittings	,,	,,	—

Name of Article.	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Iron and Steel, Galvanized:—			
Screws	value	5 per cent.	—
Sheets, Corrugated and Plain	picul	7·400	0·37
Wire	,,	6·072	0·30
Wire Rope. *See* Ungalvanized			
Wire Shorts. *See* Ungalvanized			
Iron and Tin Dross	,,	6·000	0·30
Lead:—			
Old (fit only for remanufacture)	value	5 per cent.	—
Pigs or Bars	picul	9·000	0·45
Pipe	,,	9·961	0·50
Sheet	,,	11·834	0·59
Wire	value	5 per cent.	—
Manganese	,,	,,	—
Manganese Ferro	,,	,,	—
Nickel	picul	70·000	3·50
Quicksilver	,,	126·654	6·30
Tin:—			
Compound	value	5 per cent.	—
Dross and Refuse	picul	10·885	0·54
Ingots and Slabs	,,	45·462	2·30
Pipe	value	5 per cent.	—
Sheet	picul	41·208	2·10
Tinned Tacks	,,	9·047	0·45
Tinned Plates, Decorated	,,	10·176	0·51
,, Plain	,,	7·800	0·39
,, Old	value	5 per cent.	—
Type Metal	,,	,,	—
White Metal or German Silver:—			
Bars, Ingots, and Sheets	picul	54·531	2·70
Wire	,,	43·444	2·20
Zinc:—			
Powder and Spelter	,,	12·946	0·65
Sheets (including Perforated), Plates, and Boiler Plates	,,	16·849	0·84
FOOD, DRINK, AND MEDICINE			
Fishery and Sea Products:—			
Agar-agar	picul	6·000	0·30
Awabi, in bulk	,,	52·500	2·60
Bicho de Mar, Black, Spiked	,,	53·300	2·70
,, ,, not Spiked	,,	40·000	2·00
,, White	,,	20·000	1·00
Cockles, Dried	,,	13·822	0·69
,, Fresh	,,	1·200	0·06
Compoy	,,	43·000	2·15
Crab's Flesh, Dried	,,	16·518	0·83
Fish Bones	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Cod, Dried	picul	5·800	0·29
,, Cuttle	,,	13·600	0·68

Name of Article.	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Fish, Dried and Smoked (not including Dried Codfish and Cuttle-fish)	picul	9·739	0·49
Fish, Fresh	,,	6·410	0·32
,, Maws, 1st Quality (i.e. weighing 1 catty or over per piece)	catty	5·000	0·25
Fish, Maws, 2nd Quality (i.e. weighing under 1 catty per piece)	picul	56·500	2·80
Fish Salmon Bellies	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Salt	picul	3·600	0·18
,, Skin	,,	12·711	0·64
Mussels, Oysters, and Clams, Dried	,,	16·000	0·80
Prawns and Shrimps, Dried in Bulk	,,	22·000	1·10
Seaweed, Cut	,,	3·334	0·17
,, Long	,,	2·500	0·13
,, Prepared	,,	26·000	1·30
,, Red	value	5 per cent.	—
Sharks' Fins, Dorsal and Tail	picul	88·660	4·40
,, Breast Fins	,,	37·173	1·90
,, Prepared	,,	128·562	6·40
Sharks' Skins	value	5 per cent.	—
Animal Products, Canned Goods, and Groceries :—			
Bacon and Hams, in bulk	picul	35·300	1·80
Baking Powder	value	5 per cent.	—
Beef, Corned or Pickled, in Barrels	,,	,,	—
Birds' Nests, Black (including Clarified Refuse)	catty	3·000	0·15
,, White	,,	18·000	0·90
Butter	picul	53·276	2·70
Canned Goods :—			
Asparagus	picul (Incl. weight of immediate packing.)	17·500	0·88
Awabi	picul	24·000	1·20
Cream and Milk, Evaporated or Sterilized	,,	13·000	0·65
Fruits, Table and Pie	,, (Incl. weight of immediate packing.)	14·500	0·73
Milk, Condensed	picul	19·200	0·96
Canned Goods, Unenumerated	value	5 per cent.	—
Chocolate	,,	,,	—
Cocoa	,,	,,	—
Coffee	,,	,,	—
Currants and Raisins, in bulk	picul	12·577	0·63
Fruits, Preserved, in Glass, etc.	value	5 per cent.	—
Honey	,,	,,	—
Jams and Jellies	,,	,,	—
Lard, in bulk	,,	,,	—
Macaroni and Vermicelli, in bulk	picul	9·125	0·46
Margarine	value	5 per cent.	—

Name of Article.	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
Meats, Dried and Salted	value	5 per cent.	—
Pork Rind	,,	,,	—
Sausages, Dry	,,	,,	—
Soy	picul	5·000	0·25
Tea	value	5 per cent.	—
Cereals, Fruits, Medicinal Substances, Seeds, Spices, and Vegetables :—			
Aniseed, Star:			
(*a*) 1st Quality (value Hk. Tls. 15 and over per picul)	picul	20·000	1·00
(*b*) 2nd Quality (value under Hk. Tls. 15 per picul)	,,	9·000	0·45
Apples, Fresh	,,	5·000	0·25
Asafœtida	value	5 per cent.	—
Barley, Pearl	,,	,,	—
Beans and Peas	,,	,,	—
Betelnuts, Dried	picul	4·700	0·24
Betelnut Husk, Dried	,,	2·300	0·12
Bran	,,	1·600	0·08
Cereals and Flour (including Barley, Maize, Millet, Oats, Paddy, Rice, Wheat, and Flour made therefrom; also Buckwheat and Buckwheat Flour, Cornflour and Yellow Corn Meal, Rye Flour, and Hovis Flour; but not including Arrowroot and Arrowroot Flour, Cracked Wheat, Germea, Hominy, Pearl Barley, Potato Flour, Quaker Oats, Rolled Oats, Sago and Sago Flour, Shredded Wheat, Tapioca and Tapioca Flour, and Yam Flour)	—	free	—
Camphor, Crude and Refined (including shaped)	picul	66·000	3·30
Camphor, Baross, Clean	catty	62·000	3·10
,, Baross, Refuse	value	5 per cent.	—
Capoor Cutchery	,,	,,	—
Cardamom Husk	picul	5·000	0·25
Cardamoms, Inferior	,,	20·000	1·00
,, Superior	,,	200·000	10·00
Cassia Lignea and Buds	,,	18·000	0·90
,, Twigs	,,	3·600	0·18
Chestnuts	value	5 per cent.	—
China-root	picul	14·000	0·70
Cinnamon, in bulk	,,	100·000	5·00
Cloves, in bulk	,,	18·000	0·90
,, Mother	,,	8·000	0·40
Cocaine	value	5 per cent.	—
Galangal	picul	3·700	0·19

Name of Article	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Ginseng, Clarified or Cleaned:			
1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty)	catty	56·000	2·80
2nd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 11 and not over Hk. Tls. 25 per catty) . .	,,	22·000	1·10
3rd Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 and not over Hk. Tls. 11 per catty) . .	,,	7·200	0·36
4th Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty)	,,	1·800	0·09
Ginseng, Crude, Beard, Roots, and Cuttings:			
1st Quality (value over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty)	,,	4·400	0·22
2nd Quality (value not over Hk. Tls. 3 per catty)	,,	1·700	0·085
Ginseng, Wild	value	5 per cent.	—
Groundnuts, in Shell	picul	3·000	0·15
,, Shelled	,,	4·600	0·23
Hops	value	5 per cent.	—
Isinglass, Vegetable	picul	53·000	2·70
Lemons, Fresh	thousand	29·000	1·50
Lichees, Dried	picul	10·600	0·53
Lily Flowers, Dried	,,	9·400	0·47
Lungngan Pulp	,,	13·000	0·65
Lungngans, Dried	,,	7·600	0·38
Malt	,,	8·102	0·41
Morphia in all forms	value	5 per cent.	—
Mushrooms	picul	47·000	2·40
Nutmegs	,,	30·000	1·50
Olives	value	5 per cent.	—
Opium, Tincture of	,,	,,	—
Oranges, Fresh	picul	3·600	0·18
Peel, Orange, in bulk	,,	13·000	0·65
Pepper, Black	,,	19·400	0·97
Pepper, White	,,	32·000	1·60
Potatoes, Fresh	value	5 per cent.	—
Putchuck	picul	38·000	1·90
Seed, Apricot	,,	26·800	1·30
Seed, Lily Flower (i.e. Lotus-nuts without Husks)	,,	20·000	1·00
Seed, Lucraban	,,	7·000	0·35
Seed, Melon	,,	11·000	0·55
Seed, Pine (i.e. Fir-nuts)	,,	4·800	0·24
Seed, Sesamum	,,	4·800	0·24
Vegetables, Dried, Prepared, and Salted .	value	5 per cent.	—
Sugar :—			
Sugar, Brown, under No. 11 Dutch Standard, and "Green Sugar"	picul	4·400	0·22

Name of Article	Agreed Value Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
Sugar, White, over No. 10 Dutch Standard (including Refined Sugar)	picul	6·200	0·31
Sugar, White, Cube and Loaf	,,	10·000	0·50
Sugar, Candy	,,	7·400	0·37
Sugar, Cane	,,	1·000	0·05
Wines, Beer, Spirits, Table Waters, etc. :—			
Champagne, and any other Wine sold under the label "Champagne"	Case of 12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	20·000	1·00
Sparkling Asti	,,	10·000	0·50
Other Sparkling Wines	,,	12·000	0·60
Still Wines, Red or White, exclusively the produce of the natural fermentation of grapes (not including Vins de Liqueur).	half-bottles		
(1) In Bottles	Case of 12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	6·000	0·30
(2) In Bulk	Imperial gallon	0·700	0·035
Port Wine, in Bottles	Case of 12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	14·000	0·70
Port Wine, in bulk	Imperial gallon	3·500	0·18
Marsala, in Bottles	Case of 12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	8·000	0·4
Marsala, in bulk	Imperial gallon	2·000	0·10
Vins de Liqueur other than Port and Marsala (viz., Madeira, Malaga, Sherry, etc.) :—			
(1) In Bottles	Case of 12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	10·000	0·50
(2) In bulk	Imperial gallon	3·000	0·15
Vermouth, Byrrh, and Quinquina	Case of 12 litres	5·800	0·29
Saké, in Barrels	picul	8·200	0·41
,, in Bottles	12 reputed quarts or 24 reputed pints	2·000	0·10
Ale, Beer, Cider, Perry, and similar Liquors, made of Fruits and Berries—			
(1) In Bottles	12 reputed quarts or 24 reputed pints	1·580	0·079

Name of Article	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	
(2) In Casks	Imperial gallon	0·540	0·027
Porter and Stout, in Bottles	12 reputed quarts or 24 reputed pints	2·560	0·128
,, ,, ,, in Casks	Imperial gallon	0·550	0·028
Brandy, Cognac, and Whisky, in bulk	,,	2·600	0·13
Brandy and Cognac, in Bottles	Case of 12 reputed quarts	13·400	0·67
Whisky, in Bottles	,,	7·000	0·35
Gin, in Bottles	,,	4·600	0·23
,, in bulk	Imperial gallon	1·800	0·09
Other Spirits (i.e. Rum, Aquavit, Vodka, Punch, etc.)—			
(1) In Bottles	Case of 12 reputed quarts	4·000	0·20
(2) In bulk	Imperial gallon	1·800	0·09
Liqueurs	12 reputed quarts or 24 reputed pints	10·000	0·50
Waters: Table, Aerated, and Mineral	12 bottles or 24 ½-bottles	1·400	0·07
Spirits of Wine and Rectified Spirits or Alcohol	Imperial gallon	0·560	0·028
Tobacco			
Cigarettes, value over Hk. Tls. 4·50 per 1,000 and all Cigarettes not bearing a distinctive brand or name on each Cigarette	Thousand	6·600	0·33
Cigarettes, value over Hk. Tls. 3·00, but not over Hk. Tls. 4·50 per 1,000	,,	3·800	0·19
Cigarettes, value over Hk. Tls. 1·50, but not over Hk. Tls. 3·00 per 1,000	,,	2·200	0·11
Cigarettes, value Hk. Tls. 1·50 or less per 1,000	,,	1·200	0·06
Cigars	,,	16·000	0·80
Snuff	value	5 per cent.	—
Tobacco, Leaf	picul	22·000	1·10
Tobacco, Prepared, in tins or packages under 5 lb. each	value	5 per cent.	—
Tobacco, Prepared, in bulk (not packed in tins or tin-lined cases)	picul	22·000	1·10
Tobacco, Stalk	,,	5·600	0·28

CHEMICALS AND DYES

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
Chemicals—			
Acid, Acetic	picul	30·639	1·50
,, Boracic	,,	21·448	1·10
,, Carbolic	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Hydrochloric (i.e. Muriatic)	,,	,,	—
,, Nitric	picul	14·282	0·71
,, Sulphuric	,,	3·317	0·17
Ammonia, in bulk	,,	26·513	1·30
,, Chloride of (i.e. Sol Ammoniac)	,,	27·823	0·89
,, Sulphate of	,,	7·438	0·37
Bleaching Powder (i.e. Chloride of Lime)	,,	5·469	0·27
Borax, Crude or Refined	,,	11·521	0·58
Calcium, Carbide of	,,	7·451	0·37
Copper, Sulphate of	,,	11·913	0·60
Glycerine	,,	43·930	2·20
Hide Specific	value	5 per cent.	—
Manure, Animal, Chemical, or Artificial, not otherwise enumerated	picul	2·951	0·15
Naphthalene	,,	12·653	0·63
Saltpetre	,,	9·324	0·47
Soda Ash	,,	2·499	0·12
Soda, Bicarbonate of, in bulk	,,	2·899	0·14
,, Caustic	,,	6·200	0·31
,, Crystal	,,	2·659	0·13
,, ,, Concentrated	,,	3·178	0·16
,, Nitrate of (Chile Saltpetre)	,,	5·342	0·27
,, Silicate of	,,	3·603	0·18
Dyes and Pigments—			
Aniline Dyes, not otherwise enumerated	value	5 per cent.	—
Bark, Mangrove	picul	1·682	0·084
,, Plum-tree	,,	3·187	0·16
,, Yellow (for dyeing)	,,	4·948	0·25
Blue, Paris or Prussian	,,	34·945	1·70
Bronze Powder	,,	52·979	2·60
Carbon Black (i.e. Lampblack)	,,	20·000	1·00
Carthamin	value	5 per cent.	—
Chrome Yellow	,,	,,	—
Cinnabar	picul	82·400	4·10
Cobalt, Oxide of	value	5 per cent.	—
Cochineal	,,	,,	—
Cunao, or False Gambier	picul	3·340	0·17
Cutch, or Gambier	,,	10·000	0·50
Dyes and Colours, Unclassed	value	5 per cent.	—
Gamboge	picul	56·951	2·80
Green, Emerald, Schweinfurt, or Imitation	,,	22·458	1·10
Hartall (Orpiment)	,,	9·562	0·48
Indigo, Dried, Artificial	,,	125·881	6·30
,, Liquid, Natural	,,	60·000	3·00

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed. Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
Indigo, Liquid or Paste, Artificial	picul	40·000	2·00
,, ,, Natural	,,	6·000	0·30
Indoin	value	5 per cent.	—
Laka-wood	picul	3·272	0·16
Lead, Red, White, and Yellow	,,	10·294	0·51
Logwood Extract	,,	15·492	0·77
Nutgalls	,,	20·863	1·00
Ochre	,,	6·545	0·33
Safflower	,,	12·908	0·55
Sapanwood	,,	2·744	0·14
Smalt	,,	40·150	2·00
Turmeric	,,	3·938	0·20
Ultramarine	,,	13·862	0·69
Vermilion	,,	82·400	4·10
,, Artificial	value	5 per cent.	—
White Zinc	,,	,,	—

CANDLES, GUMS, OILS, SOAP, VARNISHES, WAX AND MANUFACTURES OF

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed. Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
Candles	picul	12·600	0·63
Candlewick	,,	75·200	3·80
Gasolene, Naphtha, and Benzine, Mineral:			
(*a*) In bulk	10 Am. galls.	3·000	0·15
(*b*) In case	Case of 2 tins, each of 5 Am. gallons	3·500	0·18
Grease, Lubricating, wholly or partly mineral	picul	7·000	0·35
Gum Arabic	,,	24·000	1·20
,, Benjamin	,,	12·000	0·60
,, Copal	,,	24·000	1·20
,, Dragon's-blood	,,	60·000	3·00
,, Myrrh	,,	9·600	0·48
,, Olibanum	,,	9·600	0·48
,, Resin	,,	6·800	0·34
,, Shellac	,,	40·000	2·00
,, Sticklac	,,	15·000	0·75
,, Tragacanth	,,	18·000	0·90
Oil, Castor, Lubricating	,,	12·000	0·60
,, ,, Medicinal	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Coconut	picul	16·000	0·80
,, Kerosene:			
(*a*) In case	Case of 2 tins, each of 5 Am. gallons.	2·200	0·11
(*b*) In bulk	10 Am. galls	1·600	0·08
(*c*) Tins, empty	tin	0·200	0·01
(*d*) Case and two empty tins	each	0·540	0·027

Name of Article	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Oil, Linseed	Imperial gallon	1·200	0·06
Oil, Lubricating:			
(*a*) Wholly or partly of Mineral origin	Am. gall.	0·300	0·015
(*b*) Other kinds, not otherwise enumerated	,,	0·500	0·025
Oil, Olive, in bulk	Imperial gallon	2·000	0·10
Soap, Household and Laundry (including Blue Mottled), in bulk, Bars, and Doublets: duty to be charged on nominal weights, provided that such weights be not less than true weights and that a bar does not weigh less than 7 oz.	picul	8·800	0·44
Soap, Toilet and Fancy	value	5 per cent.	—
Stearine	picul	19·600	0·98
Turpentine:			
(*a*) Mineral	Imperial gallon	0·600	0·03
(*b*) Vegetable	,,	0·800	0·04
Wax, Bees, Yellow	picul	32·000	1·60
406 ,, Paraffin	,,	10·000	0·50
,, Vegetable	,,	15·200	0·76

Paper, Wood Pulp, Books and Maps.

Name of Article	Per	*Hk. Tls.*	*Hk. Tls.*
Paper, Cigarette, on bobbins	picul (Incl. weight of bobbin.)	40·00	2·00
Paper, Common Printing, Calendered and Uncalandered, Sized and Unsized, White and Coloured	picul	6·40	0·32
Paper, Marbled, Enamelled, and Glazed Flint	,,	12·20	0·61
Paper, M. G. Cap, White and Coloured	,,	6·40	0·32
,, Packing and Wrapping, Brown or Coloured	,,	6·40	0·32
Paper, Printing, Calendered and Uncalendered, Sized and Unsized, White and Coloured (including Simile and M. G. Poster, but not including Printing Paper otherwise enumerated), free of mechanical wood pulp	,,	9·20	0·46
Paper, Strawboard	value	5 per cent.	—
Paper, Unenumerated	,,	,,	—
Paper, Unglazed Tissue and M. G. Bleached Sulphite, free of mechanical wood pulp	picul	10·00	0·50
Paper, Writing, Drawing, Art Printing, Bank-note, Parchment, Pergamyn, and Grease-proof	value	5 per cent.	—

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate. Hk. Tls.
Wood Pulp, Chemical	picul	6·00	0·30
,, Mechanical—			
(*a*) Dry	,,	3·32	0·17
(*b*) Wet (not containing less than 40 per cent. moisture)	,,	1·66	0·083
Books	—	free	—
Charts and Maps	—	,,	—
Newspapers and Periodicals	—	,,	—

ANIMAL SUBSTANCES, RAW AND PREPARED

Hides, Leather, and Skins (Furs):—

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate. Hk. Tls.
Hides, Buffalo and Cow	picul	22·00	1·10
Leather Belting	value	5 per cent.	—
Leather, Calf, Kid, Enamelled, Japanned, Patent, and/or Coloured	picul	300·00	15·00
Leather, Cow (including that for Soles and Harness)	,,	58·00	2·90
Leather, Cow, Enamelled, Japanned, and Patent	,,	180·00	9·00
Skins (Furs), Beaver	value	5 per cent.	—
,, ,, Dog	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Fox	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Fox, Arctic, White	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Fox Legs	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Fox Legs	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Fox, Red	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Goat, Tanned	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Goat, Untanned	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Hare and Rabbit	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Lamb	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Lamb, Unborn	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Land-otter	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Lynx	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Marten, Untanned	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Musquash	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Raccoon	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Sable	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Sheep, Untanned	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Squirrel	,,	,,	—
,, ,, Wolf	,,	,,	—

Bones, Feathers, Hair, Horns, Shells, Sinews, Tusks, etc:—

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate. Hk. Tls.
Bones, Tiger	picul	56·00	2·80
Cow Bezoar, Indian	value	5 per cent.	—
Crocodile and Amadillo Scales	picul	59·00	3·00
Elephants' Tusks, Whole or Parts of	catty	3·60	0·18
Feathers, Kingfisher, Whole Skins	hundred	12·00	0·60
,, ,, Part Skins (i.e. Wings, Tails, or Backs)	,,	8·00	0·40

Name of Article	Agreed Value Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls.*
Feathers, Peacock	value	5 per cent.	—
Hair, Horse	picul	42·00	2·10
,, ,, Tails	,,	50·00	2·50
Horns, Buffalo and Cow	,,	13·00	0·65
,, Deer	,,	34·00	1·70
,, ,, Old	,,	140·00	7·00
,, ,, Young (Northern)	pair	50·00	2·50
,, ,, ,, (Southern)	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Rhinoceros	catty	80·00	4·00
Musk	,,	180·00	9·00
Sea-horse Teeth	value	5 per cent.	—
Sinews, Cow and Deer.	picul	20·00	1·00
TIMBER, WOOD, BAMBOOS, AND RATTANS			
Timber :—			
Laths	1,000 pieces	4·20	0·21
Ordinary (not including Teak and other enumerated Woods), Rough Hewn :			
Hardwood	1,000 sup. ft., B.M.	29·00	1·45
Softwood	,,	23·00	1·15
Ordinary, Sawn :			
Hardwood	1,000 sup. ft., B.M.	36·00	1·80
Softwood	,,	30·00	1·50
Ordinary, Manufactured (including any process further than simple sawing), exclusive of Masts and Spars :—			
Hardwood :—			
(*a*) Clear	1,000 sup. ft., net measure B.M.	60·00	3·00
(*b*) Merchantable	,,	42·00	2·10
Softwood :—			
(*a*) Clear	1,000 sup. ft., net measure B.M.	50·00	2·50
(*b*) Merchantable	,,	36·00	1·80
Ordinary, Masts and Spars	value	5 per cent.	—
Railway Sleepers	,,	,,	—
Teak-wood, Beams and Planks	1,000 sup. ft., B.M.	135·00	6·75
Wood, Bamboos, Rattans, etc—			
Canes, Bamboo	thousand	8·40	0·42
Rattan Skin	picul	15·00	0·75
Rattans, Core or Whole	,,	6·41	0·32
,, Split	,,	6·70	0·34

Name of Article	Agreed Value		Proposed Duty Rate
	Per	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
Wood, Camagon	picul	3·20	0·16
,, Camphor	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Ebony	,,	,,	—
,, Fragrant	,,	,,	—
,, Garoo	catty	2·40	0·12
,, Kranjee	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Laka. *See* Dyes.			
,, Lignum-vitæ	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Oil	,,	,,	—
,, Puru	catty	1·80	0·09
,, Red and Rose	,,	4·10	0·21
,, Sandal	picul	8·60	0·43
,, ,, Dust	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Sapan. *See* Dyes.			
,, Scale Sticks	piece	0·18	0·009
,, Scented	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Shavings, Hinoki	,,	,,	—
,, Veneer	,,	,,	—

In this Tariff, by Softwood is meant the wood of any coniferous tree and of all trees with "needle" or spinous leaves, e.g. Pines, Firs, Spruces, Larches, Cedars, Yews, Junipers, and Cypresses. The wood of all trees with broad leaves is to be classed as Hardwood.

COAL, FUEL, PITCH, AND TAR

Name of Article	Per	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
Coal	ton	5·400	0·27
,, Briquettes	,,	10·000	0·50
Charcoal	picul	1·093	0·05
Coke	ton	10·902	0·55
Liquid Fuel	,,	14·572	0·73
Pitch	picul	4·709	0·24
Tar, Coal	,,	1·600	0·08

CHINAWARE, ENAMELLED WARE, GLASS, ETC.

Name of Article	Per	Hk. Tls.	Hk. Tls.
Basins, Tin	gross	6·000	0·30
Chinaware	value	5 per cent.	—
Enamelled Ironware :—			
Mugs, Cups, Basins, and Bowls, not over 11 centimetres in diameter	dozen	1·000	0·05
Basins and Bowls, over 22 centimetres but not over 35 centimetres in diameter	,,	2·000	0·10
Enamelled Ironware, Unenumerated	value	5 per cent.	—
Glass and Crystal Ware	,,	,,	—
Glass Plate, Silvered, Bevelled, or Unbevelled, not over 5 square feet each	square foot	0·560	0·028
Glass Plate, Silvered, Bevelled, or Unbevelled, over 5 square feet each	,,	0·840	0·042
Glass Plate, Unsilvered	value	5 per cent.	—

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
Glass Window, Common, not over 32 oz. in weight per square foot	100 sq. ft.	5·000	0·25
Glass Window, Coloured	,,	12·000	0·60
,, Mirrors. *See* No. 589	value	5 per cent.	—
EARTH, PRECIOUS STONES, STONES AND ARTICLES MADE OF			
Amber	value	5 per cent.	—
Cement	picul	0·900	0·045
Coral Beads	catty	16·000	0·80
Cornelian Beads	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Stones, Rough	hundred	6·000	0·30
Corundum Sand	picul	3·800	0·19
Emery and Glass Powder. *See* No. 564	,,	2·400	0·12
Emery-cloth and Sand-paper. *See* No. 577	,,	—	—
Fire-bricks	value	5 per cent.	—
Fireclay	picul	1·220	0·061
Flints (including Flint Pebbles)	,,	0·800	0·04
Tiles	value	5 per cent.	—
MISCELLANEOUS			
Asbestos—			
Asbestos Boiler Composition	picul	3·600	0·18
,, Fibre and Metallic Packing	,,	64·000	3·20
,, Millboard	,,	8·000	0·40
,, Sheets and Packing	,,	44·000	2·20
,, Yarn	,,	40·000	2·00
Bags, Mats, and Matting—			
529 Bags, Cotton, New	,,	40·000	2·00
,, Gunny, New. *See* No. 57	,,	8·480	0·42
,, ,, Old. *See* No. 58	value	5 per cent.	—
Hemp or Hessian Bags, New. *See* No. 60	picul	18·900	0·95
,, ,, ,, Old. *See* No. 61	value	5 per cent.	—
Bags, Straw, and Grass	thousand	30·000	1·50
Matts, Coir (Door)	dozen	8·000	0·40
,, Fancy	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Formosa Grass (Bed)	each	4·700	0·24
,, Rattan	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Rush	hundred	71·000	3·60
,, Straw	,,	5·100	0·26
,, Tatami	each	0·320	0·016
Matting, Coir, 36 in. by 100 yds.	roll of 100 yards	37·100	1·90
Matting, Straw, 36 in. by 40 yds.	roll of 40	5·000	0·25
Buttons—			
Buttons, Fancy (Glass, Jewellery, etc.)	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Metal (not including those made of Precious Metals or plated with Precious Metals)	gross	0·400	0·02

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value *Hk. Tls.*	Proposed Duty Rate *Hk. Tls*
Buttons, Porcelain	12 gross	0·340	0·017
,, Shell	gross	0·420	0·021
Fans, Umbrellas, and Sunshades—			
Fans, Palm-leaf, Coarse	thousand	7·000	0·35
,, ,, Fancy	,,	20·000	1·00
,, ,, Fine	,,	12·000	0·60
,, Paper or Cotton	,,	47·000	2·40
Fans, Silk	value	5 per cent.	—
Umbrellas and Sunshades:			
With Handles Wholly or Partly of Precious Metals, Ivory, Mother-of-Pearl, Tortoiseshell, Agate, etc., or Jewelled	value	5 per cent.	—
With all other Handles, all Cotton:			
(*a*) Length of rib not over 17 in.	value	5 per cent.	—
(*b*) Length of rib over 17 in.	each	0·440	0·22
With all other Handles, Mixtures, not Silk	,,	0·730	0·35
With all other Handles, Silk and Silk Mixtures	,,	1·300	0·65
Files and Needles:—			
Files of all kinds—			
Filing surface only, not over 4 in. long	dozen	1·300	0·065
Filing surface only, over 4 in. but not over 9 in. long	,,	2·700	0·14
Filing surface only, over 9 in. but not over 14 in. long	,,	5·000	0·25
Filing surface only, over 14 in. long	,,	12·000	0·60
Needles, Nos. 7/0 and 6/0	100 mile	54·000	2·70
,, Nos. 3/0 and 2/0	,,	50·000	2·50
,, Assorted (not including 7/0)	,,	40·000	2·00
Matches and Match-making Materials—			
Matches, Wood, Safety or other—			
Small, in boxes not over 2 in. by 1⅜ in. by ⅝ in.	100 gross box	18·400	0·92
Large, in boxes not over 2½ in. by 1⅛ in. by ¾ in.	50 gross box	16·000	0·80
In boxes over above sizes	value	5 per cent.	—
Chlorate of Potash	picul	36·000	1·80
564 Emery and Glass Powder	,,	2·400	0·12
Labels	value	5 per cent.	—
Phosphorus	picul	70·000	3·50
Wax, Paraffin. *See* No. 406	,,	10·000	0·50
Wood Shavings	,,	2·200	0·11
,, Splints	,,	2·000	0·10

Name of Article	Per	Agreed Value Hk. Tls.	Proposed Duty Rate Hk. Tls.
Metal Threads and Foil—			
Thread, Gold, Imitation, on Cotton	catty	3·000	0·15
,, Silver, Imitation, on Cotton	,,	1·800	0·09
,, Gold and Silver, Imitation, on Silk	value	5 per cent.	—
Tinfoil	picul	63·000	3·20
Sundry—			
Bamboo, Baskets, Bamboo Blinds, and other Bamboo Ware	value	5 per cent.	—
Bent-wood Chairs	,,	,,	—
Coir Yarn	,,	,,	—
Cordage and Twine	,,	,,	—
577 Emery-cloth and Sandpaper (sheet not over 144 square inches)	ream	5·000	0·25
Furniture and other Woodware	value	5 per cent.	—
Glue (not including Fish Glue)	picul	20·000	1·00
,, Cow, Refuse	,,	20·000	1·00
,, Fish	,,	75·857	3·80
India-rubber and Gutta-percha, Crude	value	5 per cent.	—
,, Old or Waste	,,	,,	—
Inks of all kinds	,,	,,	—
Insect powder	,,	,,	—
Lampwick	picul	54·600	2·70
Leather Purses	gross	11·200	0·56
Machines, Sewing and Knitting	value	5 per cent.	—
589 Mirrors	,,	,,	—
Moulding, Picture	,,	,,	—
Oakum	picul	12·600	0·63
Rope	value	5 per cent.	—
Shoes and Boots	,,	,,	—
Starch	,,	,,	—
Sulphur	,,	,,	—
Tinder	picul	9·000	0·45
Worm Tablets, in Bottles, not over 60 pieces	dozen	0·740	0·037
UNENUMERATED GOODS			
Unenumerated Goods	value	5 per cent.	—

RULES

I.—Imports unenumerated in this Tariff will pay duty at the rate of 5 per cent. ad valorem; and the value upon which Duty is to be calculated shall be the wholesale market value of the goods in local currency. This market value when converted into Haikwan Taels shall be considered to be 12 per cent. higher than the amount upon which Duty is to be calculated.

If the goods have been sold before presentation to the Customs of the Application to pay Duty, the gross amount of the *boná fide* contract will be accepted as evidence of the market value. Should the goods have been sold on c. f. and i. terms, that is to say, without inclusion in the price of Duty and other charges, such c. f. and i. price shall be taken as the value for Duty-paying purposes without the deduction mentioned in the preceding paragraph.

If the goods have not been sold before presentation to the Customs of the Application to pay Duty, and should a dispute arise between Customs and importer regarding the value or classification of goods, the case will be referred to a Board of Arbitration composed as follows:—

An official of the Customs;
A merchant selected by the Consul of the importer; and
A merchant, differing in nationality from the importer, selected by the Senior Consul.

Questions regarding procedure, etc., which may arise during the sittings of the Board shall be decided by the majority. The final finding of the majority of the Board, which must be announced within fifteen days of the reference (not including holidays), will be binding upon both parties. Each of the two merchants on the Board will be entitled to a fee of Ten Haikwan Taels. Should the Board sustain the Customs valuation, or, in the event of not sustaining that valuation, should it decide that the goods have been undervalued by the importer to the extent of not less than 7½ per cent., the importer will pay the fees; if otherwise, the fees will be paid by the Customs. Should the Board decide that the correct value of the goods is 20 per cent. (or more) higher than that upon which the importer originally claimed to pay Duty, the Customs authorities may retain possession of the goods until full Duty has been paid and may levy an additional Duty equal to four times the Duty sought to be evaded.

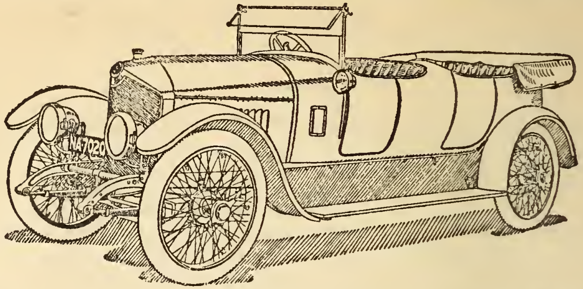
In all cases invoices, when available, must be produced if required by the Customs.

II.—The following will not be liable to Import Duty: Foreign Rice, Cereals, and Flour; Gold and Silver, both Bullion and Coin; Printed Books, Charts, Maps, Periodicals, and Newspapers.

A freight or part freight of Duty-free commodities (Gold and Silver Bullion and foreign Coins excepted) will render the vessel carrying them, though no other cargo be on board, liable to Tonnage Dues.

Drawbacks will be issued for Ships' Stores and Bunker Coal when taken on board.

III.—Except at the requisition of the Chinese Government, or for sale to Chinese duly authorised to purchase them, Import trade is prohibited in all Arms, Ammunition, and Munitions of War of every description. No Permit to land them will be issued until the Customs have proof that the necessary authority has been given to the importer. Infraction of this rule will be punishable by confiscation of all the goods concerned. The import of Salt is absolutely prohibited.



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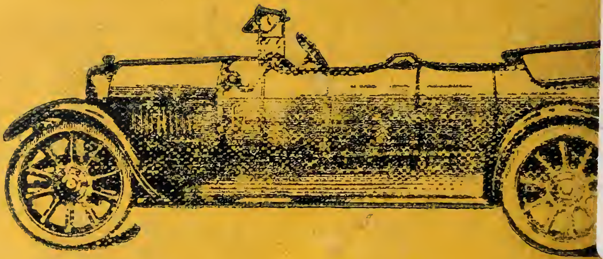

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